赵永新 编著

汉语语法概要

ANYU YUFA GAIYAO

Essentials *of* Chinese Grammar *for* Foreigners

by

Zhao Yongxin

北京语言学院出版社

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前　　言

我国的对外汉语教学已经有40多年的历史了。近10年来，对外汉语教学又有了长足的发展，在总体设计、教材编写、课堂教学和水平考试等方面进行了新的、更加全面的探索和尝试，在学科建设上取得了可喜的成果。教材系列化、多层次化；学术理论著作不断问世，为对外汉语教学事业进一步发展奠定了实践和理论基础。

在语法方面，以外国人为对象的语法著作也有好几部了，这些著作的内容和写法对对外汉语语法教学和汉语语法研究都有借鉴的意义。但这些著作往往篇幅过长，讲解过细，初学者使用起来不太方便。因此，我们深深感到有必要编写一本初学汉语的外国人看得懂，用得上的语法书。《汉语语法概要》就是这样一本书。本书以以英语为母语的汉语初学者为主要对象，不强调系统性也不求面面俱到，而是突出对外汉语语法教学的重点及外国初学者的难点。本书采用汉英对照的形式出版，以便于初学者使用。

在编写本书时参考了一些语法著作和对外汉语教材，赵金铭、董树人等先生给予了帮助，在此一并致谢。我热切地希望使用本书的师生对本书提出宝贵的意见，以便进一步修订。

编　者

1991年12月

FOREWORD

In China, teaching Chinese as a foreign language has a history of over 40 years. During the last decade, TCFL has made great development in overall design and textbook compilation as well as in classroom teaching and testing. New and full–fledged explorations and experiments have resulted in encouraging achievements in the building up of TCFL as a discipline. Textbooks are being systemized and multidimensionalized and a number of academic works have been published. All these have helped lay a foundation both in practice and theory for the further development of TCFL.

In the respect of Chinese grammar, there are several grammar books intended to meet the needs of foreign learners, these books are useful in Chinese grammar teaching and studies. However, in both content and the way of writing these works are often too lengthy and meticulous for beginners to follow. What they need is a grammar book which is easy to understand and use. 《Essentials of Chinese Grammar》 is such a book. As a grammar book for beginners of Chinese whose mother tongue is English, it gives prominence to the focal points in teaching and the difficulties of foreigners. It does not aim at giving a very systematic and overall treatment of Chinese grammar. To make it more convenient for beginners to follow, it is published in bilingual form. My thanks should go to the authors of the grammar works and

TCFL textbooks I refered to when I prepared this book and to Mr. Zhao Jinming and Mr. Dong Shuren who provided tremendous help to me. Criticism and suggestions from the users, teachers and students are most welcome.

Zhao, Yongxin
December, 1991

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Chapter One
Grammar and Grammatical Units

1.1 语法的性质

语法和词汇都是语言的要素。词汇是词的总汇，是构成语言的材料。没有词汇，就没有语言。语法是用词造句的规则，没有语法，也不能形成语言。例如“我们”“学习”“汉语”是三个词，单说出其中任何一个，都只能表达一个孤立的意义。如果把这三个词随意地堆在一起，说成“汉语学习我们”或“学习我们汉语”，虽然它们已不是孤立的词，仍然不能表达一定的意义，因为它们不是按照汉语句子的结构规律组织起来的。只有按照汉语句子的结构规律把它们组织成“我们学习汉语。”才形成了具有一定意义的句子。我们说话、写文

1.1 The Nature of Grammar

Grammar and vocabulary are the two essential elements of language. Vocabulary is the aggregate of words and the elements of language. Without vocabulary, there is no language. Grammar is the way in which words are used to construct sentences. Language can not be formed without grammar. For instance, “我们”“学习” “汉语”are three words. If any of these is taken singly, it expresses a single meaning. If these three words are grouped together in any order to say: 汉语学习我们 or 学习我们汉语， they are no longer isolated words. Similarly they do not express a certain meaning, because they are not organized according to Chinese grammatical rules. They could express a complete meaning only by following the order of 我们学习汉语。 When we speak or write, we use many words to construct all sorts of sentences. There are definite rules that govern the

章，总要用很多词造成各式各样的句子，哪些词应该怎么用，哪些句子应该怎么造，都有一定的规则。只有符合规则的句子才能成为具有交际功能的句子。

usage of words, and the construction of sentences. Only those sentences that conform with grammatical rules can become communicative sentences.

1.2 语法的单位

汉语的语法单位包括语素、词、短语、句子。最小的语法单位是语素，语素构成词，词构成短语，短语构成句子。

1.2 Grammatical Units

Morphemes, words, phrases and sentences are the grammatical units of the Chinese Language. The smallest grammatical unit is morpheme. Morphemes form words, words form phrases and phrases form sentences.

1.2.1 语素

语素是有一定声音和意义的最小构词单位，例如“语”、“言”、“人”、“民”、“葡萄”等都是语素，因为它们都有意义，而且不能分割成更小的有意义的单位。“语”、“言”等单音节语素自然不能再分割了，像“葡萄”等双音节语素，如再分割成“葡”、“萄”、就没有任何意义，因而也就不是语素了。

1.2.1 Morpheme

Morpheme is the smallest structural unit to form a word and has a certain pronunciation and meaning. For instance, “语”, “言”, “人”, “民”, “葡萄”。etc. are all morphemes. Because they all have meanings, and cannot be divided further. The monosyllabic morpheme such as “语”, “言” of course can not be divided. The disyllabic morpheme like “葡萄”, when divided into “葡” and “萄”, has no meaning at all. So it is not a morpheme.

一个语素至少包含一种意义，不管这种意义是具体的词汇意义还是抽象的语法意义。如“身”虽然不能单说，但一看就知道它含有“躯体”的意义。“子”、“们”不能单用，但“子”放在别的语素后面时，它表示一种“事物”，如“椅子”、“孩子”等。“们”加在指人的和一些别的名词后头表示复数。

A morpheme contains at least one meaning, which can be concrete lexical meaning or abstract grammatical meaning or both. For example, “身” cannot be used by itself, but it means “body”. “子” and “们” cannot stand by themselves. Only when 子 is placed after another morpheme as “椅子”, “孩子”, etc. can it become meaningful. 们 after a noun or pronoun indicates person and shows plural number.

一个语素必须有一定的语音形式，这个语音形式在汉语里大多是单音节，少数是两个以上音节。如“身”、“体”、“木”、“石”、“玻璃”、“巧克力”等。

Morphemes must have definite phonological forms, most of which are monosyllabic in Chinese such as “身”, “体”, “木”, and “石”. Only a few are made up of two or more syllables, as “玻璃”, “巧克力” (糖), etc.

语素有的可以独立成词，如“白”、“火”、“车”、“菜”等，它们独用时是词，跟别的语素构成“白色”、“火车”、“车辆”、“菜单”等词时，就是语素；有的不能独立成词，如“民”、“典”、“吗”等，这种语素永远是语素。

Some morphemes can stand as isolated words, such as “白”, “火”, “车” and “菜” etc. When such words are used by themselves, they are words. When used with other morphemes to form “白色”, “火车”, “车辆”, “菜单”, then they are morphemes. Some morphemes cannot be used as an independent word, such as “民”, “典”, “吗” etc. Such morphemes will stay forever as morphemes.

1.2.2 词

词是语言中有意义的能单说或用来造句的最小单位。例如“农民”是一个词。因为它有意义，是“长期参加农业生产的劳动者”，在对话中，它可以单说，单独回答问题。如：

那个人是干什么的？—农民。

有些词不能单说，但是可以用来造句。例如：“我和两个朋友今年去北京。”“和”在“我”、“两个朋友”之间起连接作用，表示它们是并列关系。“你去吗？”的“吗”表示疑问。

说词是“能单说或用来造句的单位”，要加上“最小的”的限制，这是为了同短语区别开来。如“玻璃窗”，能单说：“那是什么？—玻璃窗。”但“玻璃窗”是词组，它还可以再分割成“玻璃”和“窗”：“那是什么？—玻璃。”“请把窗关上。”

1.2.2 Word

Words are the smallest units which have meanings, can be used to answer questions on their own, and can be used to form sentences. For example, 农民 is a word, because it means ″labourers who engage in long term agricultural production″. In a dialogue, 农民 can stand and answer a question by itself. For example:

What does the man do ?
A peasant.

Some words can not stand on their own, but can be used to form sentences. For example, in the sentence “我和两个朋友今年去北京。”(Two friends and I will go to Beijing this year.) “和” indicates that “我”(I) and “两个朋友”(two friends) are juxtaposed. In the sentence “你去吗?”, “吗” indicates interrogative form.

When we say that words can be used single or be used to form sentences, we should make a restrictive addition that words are the smallest unit for the above purposes, for by such a restriction we distinguish them from phrases. e.g. “玻璃窗” (glass window) can stand on it own : 那是什么? (what′s that) —玻璃窗. (glass window) But “玻璃窗” is a phrase, it can be divided into 玻璃 (glass) and 窗 (window):

那是什么? (what′s that?) —玻璃 (glass) or “请把窗户关上”(please close the window.)

1.2.3 短语

短语是由两个以上的词按一定的规则组合起来表达一定的意义的造句单位。例如:“学汉语的人很多”中的“学汉语的人”“很多”都是短语。短语是比词大，但又不成为一个句子的语言单位。

1.2.3 Phrase

A phrase is a sentence-making unit which is formed by two or more words according to rules and conveys a meaning. For instance, in the sentence “学汉语的人很多” (There are many people learning the Chinese language.) “学汉语的人”(people learning Chinese), “很多” (many) are both phrases in Chinese. A phrase is a language unit which is bigger than a word, but it is not a sentence.

在短语里，词和词有一定的关系和结构方式。根据词和词之间的关系，短语可以分为五种类型。

In phrases, words are linked together according to their mutual relations and structural rules and phrase can be divided into five basic types according to the ways the words are related.

(1) 主谓短语　由两部分组成，前一部分是陈述的对象，后一部分是陈述内容。例如:

(1) The subject–predicate phrase, which is made up of two parts, with the first being the subject and the second expanding on it. For example:

工业发达　心情抒畅　品质优秀

今天星期五　明天圣诞节

(2) 述宾短语　由两部分组成，前一部分表示动作或行动，后一部分是动作、行为所支配、关涉的对象。例如:

(2) The verb–object phrase, which is also made up of two parts, the first being a verb denoting an action and the second an object denoting the receiver of the action. For example:

学习汉语　是工程师　来了客人

有一个工厂　说不出话

(3) 偏正短语　由两部分组成，前一部分限制或修饰后一部分。偏正短语可分为两类:

(3) The subordinate phrase, which consists of a modifier and the word it modifies. There are two types of subordinate phrase.

①中心语是名词。例如:

① Subordinate phrase with a noun as its central part. For example:

幸福生活　遥远的地方　我的故乡
一所学校　两个小时

②中心语是动词或形容词。例如:

② Subordinate phrase with a verb or adjective as its central part. For example:

热烈欢迎　已经掌握　大胆地工作
非常漂亮　不容易　相当难

(4) 补充短语　由两部分组成，前一部分表示动作或性状，后一部分补充说明前一部分。例如:

(4) Phrase with a verb (or adjective) complement. In a phrase of this kind, the first part is a verb or adjective denoting an action, quality or state and the second part is a complement to the first part. For example:

学得好　说清楚　做得完
跑过去　看一遍　去一趟

(5) 联合短语　由两个或几个部分组成，各部分有并列、选择、递进、承接等关系。例如:

(5) The coordinative phrase. It is made up of two or more parts. The words in this kind of phrase are linked to express coordinate, alternative, progressive or conutinous relations of the two parts. For example:

教师学生　　文化体育　　工人和农民

前进或后退　聪明而勇敢　讨论并通过

一般词组都可以拆开加进别的成分，可以把一个词换成另一个词，如:“学习努力”可以扩展为“学习非常努力”，也可以换成“学习勤奋”,“工作努力”。但语言中有一种特殊的短语，我们称为固定短语。在这种短语里，既不能加进别的词语，也不能换用别的词语，这种短语大都是专名、术语和成语、如:“北京语言学院”“普通语言学”“千山万水”“有条有理”等。

Generally speaking, we can insert words into a Chinese phrase and we can also change its meaning by replacing its forming words. e.g. phrase 学习努力 can be enlarged to 学习非常努力, and can be changed into 学习勤奋，工作努力. But in Chinese, there is a special phrase called a fixed phrase, in which neither a word can be added nor changed. Most of the phrases are proper nouns, terms and idioms, e.g. 北京语言学院 (Beijing Language Institute), 普通语言学(General Linguistics), 千山万水 (ten thousand crags and torrents, numerous mountains and rivers.), 有条有理 (systematic) etc.

1.2.4 句子

句子是由词或短语按照一定语法规则构成的，是能表达一个完整意思的，前后有较大停顿，有一定语调的语言单位。例如:

1.2.4 Sentence

A sentence is a language unit made up of words or phrases according to grammatical rules, expresing a complete idea, and having a full stop and intonation. For example:

①我去北京。

②我看完了这部小说。

③请坐。

句子可以从不同角度根据不同语法特点进行分类。

Sentences can be classified according to different points of view and different grammatical characteristics.

(1) 单句和复句　按照句子结构的繁简，可以分成单句和复句。如：

(1) Simple and compound sentences

Sentences can be classified into simple and compound seutences according to tieir structures. For example:

①这儿的气候真好！

②我们到中国学习汉语。

③这句话的意思你懂吗？

这些句子只包含一个主谓短语，表示简单的完整意思。

The above sentences contain a subject-predicate phrase and express a simple, complete idea.

①风停了，雨也住了。

②你是今年回国，还是明年回国？

③如果明天下雨，我们就不去参观了。

这些句子都是由两个以上在意义上有关系的单句组成的。组成复句的各个单句是这个复句的分句，分句与分句之间有一定的语音停顿。

The above sentences are made up of two or more simple sentences that have relations with each other in their meanings. The simple sentences that form the compound sentences are called clause. There is a certain pause between the clauses when read.

(2) 按照表达功能可以将句子分成：陈述句、疑问句、祈使句、感叹句。

(2) Sentences can be classified into declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences, according to their functions.

1) 陈述句:叙述事情或对事物加以说明描写。例如:

1) The declarative sentence

A declarative sentence is a statement or an assertion. For example:

①我出去一下。

②张大夫在首都医院工作。

③今天热极了。

2) 疑问句: 提出问题。例如:

2) The interrogative sentence

An interrogative sentence is a question. For example:

①你什么时候来北京的?

②这句话的意思你明白不明白?

③你去哪儿。

3) 祈使句: 表示请求、命令、劝阻或禁止。例如:

3) The imperative sentence

An imperative sentence expresses request, command, dissuasion or prohibition. For example:

①你们赶快回去吧!

②别着急! 慢慢走!

③室内禁止吸烟!

4) 感叹句: 表示强烈的感情。例如:

4) The exclamatory sentence

An exclamatory sentence is one which expresses strong emotions. For example:

①这里的风景多么美丽啊!

②这本词典对我们太有用了!

③唉! 这种事可不好办啊!

(3) 按结构分: 主谓句和非主谓句

(3) Sentences can be classified into subject-predicate sentences and non-subject-predicate sentences.

1) 主谓句：由主语和谓语两部分组成的句子叫主谓句，也叫双部句。例如：

1) The subject-predicate sentence. It is made up of two parts, the subject and the predicate. It is also called a two-part sentence. For example:

①我朋友在北京语言学院学习汉语。

②这本书是去年出版的。

③他学习很努力。

2) 非主谓句：不是由主语和谓语两部分组成的句子叫非主谓句，也叫单部句。非主谓句又分两种：无主句和独词句。例如：

2) The non-subject-predicate sentence. It is not made up of a subject and a predicate. It is called a one-part sentence. The non-subject-predicate sentences can be classified into two types: zero-subject sentence and one word / phrase sentence. For example:

①刮风了。

②小心火车！

③注意！

④多美的天啊！

例① ②是没有主语的句子。是无主句。例③ ④是由一个词或一个偏正关系的短语组成的句子，叫独词句。

In the above, examples ① and ② are non-subject sentences. Examples ③ and ④ are one-word / phrase sentences, which are made up of one-word or one endocentric phrase.

(4) 按谓语的性质可分为名词谓语句、动词谓语句、形容词谓语句、主谓谓语句。

(4) According to the characteristics of their predicates, sentences can be classified into sentences with an noun as its predicate; sentences with a verb as its predicate; sentences with a adjective as its predicate and sentences with a subject-predicate phrase as its predicate.

1) 名词谓语句：谓语由名词或名词短语充任。例如：

1) Sentence with a noun as its predicate.

A sentence with a noun as its predicate is one in which a noun or noun-phrase is the predicate. For example:

①今天星期日。

②马克澳大利亚人。

③她二十多岁。

2) 动词谓语句：谓语为动词。例如：

2) Sentence with a verb as its predicate.

A sentence with a verb as its predicate is one in which a verb is the predicate. For example:

①他弟弟在大学学习。

②我有一本汉英词典。

③我下午去机场送朋友。

3) 形容词谓语句：谓语为形容词。例如：

3) Sentence with an adjective as its predicate. A sentence with an adjective as its predicate is one in which an adjective is the predicate. For example:

①天气很好。

②饭凉了。

③这儿的风景很美丽。

4) 主谓谓语句：谓语由主谓短语充任。例如：

4) Sentence with a subject-predicate phrase as its predicate.

When a subject-predicate phrase functions as the predicate, such a sentence is referred to as "a sentence with a subject-predicate phrase as its predicate". For example:

①他身体很好。

②大街上人多极了。

③这里风景真美。

1.3 词的构成

1.3.1 汉语的词从构造上可以分为两类：单纯词和合成词。由一个语素构成的词叫单纯词。这个词可以是单音节的，也可以是双音节的，如两个音节完全相同的："爸爸"、"妈妈"、"茫茫"、"滔滔"等；两个音节的声母相同的："仿佛"、"伶俐"、"参差"等；两个音节的韵母相同的："骆驼"、"糊涂"、"唠叨"等；两个音节完全不相同的："马虎"、"玻璃"、"葡萄"、"垃圾"等。还有三个音节以上的，这些词大多是从其他语言中音译过来的，如"法西斯"、"奥林匹克"等。

1.3.2 合成词是由两个以上的语素构成的。汉语的合成词由以下两种方法构成：

(1) 复合式 由两个或两个以上的词根语素结合在一起构成的。从语素之间的关系看，又有以下几种结构方式：

1.3 Word-Formation

1.3.1 Chinese words can be classified into two parts according to structure: single-morpheme word and compound word. Word which is made up of one morpheme is single-morpheme word. The word can be monosyllabic or disyllabic. The disyllabic word can be further divided into the following type: ① The first syllabic is repeated such as 爸爸，妈妈，茫茫，滔滔 etc. ② The initial consonants of the two syllables are the same, for example :仿佛，伶俐，参差 etc. ③ The vowels of the two syllables are the same, for example: 骆驼，糊涂，唠叨 etc. ④ There are also words made up of two syllables which are different, such as 马虎，玻璃，葡萄，垃圾 etc. In the Chinese there are a few trisyllabic words, the majority of which are transliterated from other languages, such as 法西斯，奥林匹克 etc.

1.3.2 Compound words are made up of two or more morphemes. There are two methods by which Chinese compounds are formed.

(1) Composite form, which is a combination of two or more base morphemes. From morpheme in relationship, it has the following structrual forms:

1）联合式　由两个意义相同、相近、相关或相反的语素并列组合而成的。例如：

1) Compound with coordinate morphemes, which is made up of two morphemes, with similar or contrarary meanings. For example:

语言　思想　光明　声音

东西　大小　左右　矛盾

2）偏正式　前一个语素修饰、限制后一个语素，以后一个语素的意义为主。例如：

2) Compound with subordinate morphemes, which is made up of two morphemes, with the first morpheme modifying or restricting the second morpheme, and the second meaning as the main meaning. For example:

火车　京剧　雪白　笔直

学校　工人　长江　外科

3）补充式　后一个语素补充说明前一个语素，以前一个语素的意义为主。例如：

3) Compound with a complementary morphemes, which is made up of two morphemes, with the second expressing more about the first one and the first being the main meaning. For example:

扩大　提高　改进　推翻

车辆　书本　人口　房间

4）动宾式　前一语素表示动作、行为，后一语素表示动作、行为所支配、关涉的事物。例如：

4) Compound with a verb and its object which is made up of two morphemes, with the first denoting an action and the second denoting the object that the action governs. For example:

司机　理事　司令　主席

注意　动员　起草　鼓掌

5) 主谓式　前一语素表示被陈述的事物，后一语素是陈述前一语素的内容。例如：

5) Subject-predicate compound, which is made up of two morphemes, the first being the subject. and the second telling more about it. For example:

心疼　胆小　头痛　民主

年轻　自卫　月亮　眼热

(2) 附加式　由一个表示具体词汇意义的词根语素和一个表示某种附加意义的词缀构成的。

(2) Compound with affixation. It has two parts. One is the base expressing concrete lexical meaning, the other is the affix expressing certain appendant meaning.

1) 词缀+词根语素。例如：

1) Prefix + base morpheme. For example:

老—　老虎　老师　老乡

阿—　阿姨　阿毛　阿三

第—　第一　第五　第十六

小—　小孩　小王　小张

2) 词根语素+词缀　例如

2) Base morpheme + suffix. For example:

—子　桌子　本子　胖子　瘦子

—儿　花儿　鸟儿　歌儿　盖儿

—头　石头　木头　苦头　甜头

—者　作者　读者　记者　工作者

—性　弹性　惰性　创造性　积极性

—化　软化　绿化　现代化　电气化

此外还有简称和数词缩语：

Abbreviation and numeral abbreviation:

1）简称 简称是事物的名称或固定词组简化了的称谓。例如：

1) Abbreviation is shortening of terms or fixed phrases. For example:

科学技术→科技　　旅行游览→旅游

外交部长→外长　　整顿作风→整风

工业、农业→工农业　　教员、职员→教职员

人民代表大会→人大

联合国安全理事会→安理会

2）数词缩语 用数字概括几种具有共同性质的事物或行为。例如：

2) Numeral abbreviation. It refers to summarizing the common features of several things or actions by using a numeral. For example:

身体好、学习好、工作好→三好

工业现代化、农业现代化、国防现代化、科学技术现代化→四化

有些简称、数词短语经过人们长期的使用，已经固定了，渐渐变成新词。例如：

Some abbreviations and numeral abbreviations become idioms after long use. For example:

高中　　教研室　　五官　　八股

第二章 词的分类

Chapter Two Parts of Speech

汉语的词可以分成实词和虚词两大类。实词有比较具体的词汇意义，能够充当句子成分。实词包括名词（含时间词、处所词）、动词、形容词、数词、量词、代词和副词。虚词没有具体的词汇意义，一般不能充任句子成分。虚词包括介词、连词、助词、象声词和叹词。

Chinese words can be classified into two parts: notional words and form words. Notional word has concrete lexical meanings and can play elements of sentence. Notional word includes noun (including time word and position word), verb, adjective, numeral, measure word, promoun and adverb. Form word has no concrete meanings and can not play elements of sentence. It includes preposition conjunction, particle, onomatopoeia and interjection.

在汉语里，名词、代词、数量词是“体词”、动词、形容词是“谓词”。

In Chinese, noun, pronoun and numeral measure word are subjective words, and verb and adjective are predicative words.

2.1 名词

2.1 Nouns

2.1.1 名词表示人、事物、时地等。例如:

2.1.1 Nouns are the words that denote people, things or place and time. For example:

大夫	工程师	学生	教师	阿姨
字典	汽车	电话	中国	水平
今天	晚上	八月	屋里	下边

名词可以受数量词的修饰。在汉语里，表示人或事物的数量时一般不能把数词直接用在名词前，在数词和名词之间要用一个量词，如“一个朋友”、“三本杂志”，而不能说“一朋友”、“三杂志”。名词一般也不能单独受量词的修饰。例如，不能说“个朋友”、“本杂志”。名词一般也不能受副词的修饰。例如，不能说“不人”、“很书”“也椅子”等等。汉语的名词没有“数”的语法范畴，不论单数、复数，形式上都是一样的，如：“一张票”、“五张票”，“两个孩子”、“十个孩子”，“这本小说”、“这些小说”，“票”、“孩子”和“小说”在形式上没有变化。但是，在指人的名词后面可以加“们”表示复数，如：朋友们、先生们、女士们、同志们，等等。但要注意，如果在表示人的名词的前面有数量词或在句中有其他表示多数的词语时，就不能再用“们”，如：我们不能说“＊我们系有三百个学生们”也不能说“＊来看电影的学生们很多”。

Nouns can be modified by numerals and measure words. In Chinese, a numeral does not modify a noun directly. It must have a measure word between it and the noun it modifies,e.g. “一个朋友”, “三本杂志”, we can not say“一朋友”, “三杂志”. A noun can not be modified by a measure word alone, for instance, we can not say “个朋友”、“本杂志”. Noun can not be modified by adverbal, e.g. we can not say “不人”, “很书” or“也椅子”, etc.In Chinese, nouns are not distinguished in terms of singular or plural number. Singular or plural,nouns are the same in form, e.g. “一张票”or “五张票”, “两个孩子” or “十个孩子”, “这本小说” or “这些小说”, 票, 孩子 and 小说 don't make any changing in form. But when the suffix 们 is added to a personal noun, 们 makes it plural, e.g. 朋友们, 先生们, 女士们, 同志们, etc. However 们 is never added to nouns modified by a numeral or in the sentence where other words have already expressed plural. e.g. it is wrong to say: “我们系有三百个学生们” or “来看电影的学生们很多”.

2.1.2 名词的语法功能

名词在句中能作主语、宾语和定语，有时还能作谓语。

2.1.2 The functions of nouns

Noun can be used as subject, object and attributive. Sometimes it can serve as predicate.

①北京是中国的首都。

②昨天我们参观了一个展览会。

③故乡的山水真美丽。

④今天星期日。

例①“北京”作主语。例②“展览会”作宾语。例③“故乡”作定语。例④“星期日”作谓语。

In the above examples, ①北京 is the subject, ②展览会 is the object, ③故乡 is the attributive modifier, ④星期日 is the predicate.

2.1.3 方位词

方位词是表示方向或位置的词。方位词分单纯的和合成的两类。单纯方位词共有 14 个:

2.1.3 Position words

Position words are the words that indicate direction or position. There are two types: simple position words and compound position words. There are 14 simple position words:

上　下　前　后　里　外　内

左　右　东　西　南　北　中

单纯方位词前面加上“以”或“之”，或者在后面加上“边”、“面”、“头”构成合成方位词。如下表:

Simple position words can be formed into compound position words by attaching to 边, 面 and 头, or preceding 以 or 之. Examples of position words are shown in the following table:

	东	西	南	北	上	下	前	后	左	右	里	外	内	中	旁
以+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	+	+	+	−	−
之+	−	−	−	−	+	+	+	+	−	−	−	+	+	+	−
+边	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	+
+面	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	−
+头	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	+	+	−	−	−

方位词附在其他词语前后，同这些词共同组成一个短语，叫“方位短语”。例如:

Position words may be attached to other words to form “position phrase”. For example:

楼上　楼下　学校里　节日里　房间里面

上（个）星期　上上（个）月

合成方位词的语法功能:

The functions of compound position words:

合成方位词在句中可以充当主语、宾语、定语、状语。例如:

Compound position words may function as a subject, an object, an attributive modifier or an adverbial modifier in a sentence. For example:

①外边冷，请到屋里坐。

②汉语词典在上头，英语词典在下头。

③中间（的）那张画是他自己画的。

④以前我不太了解他。

例①“外边”作主语。例②“上头”、“下头”作宾语。例③“中间”作定语。例④“以前”作状语。

In the above examples, ① 外边 is used as the subject, ② 上头，下头 used as the object, ③ 中间 used as the attributive modifier, ④ 从前 used as the adverbial modifier.

2.1.4　时间词。

2.1.4 Time words

表示时间的名词叫时间词。例如:

Time words are the words that indicate time. For example:

今天　去年　现在　从前　将来

国庆节

时间词的语法功能:

The functions of time words:

时间词在句中可以分别充任主语、宾语、谓语、定语、状语、补语等。例如:

Time words can serve as a subject, an object, a predicate, an attributive modifier and an adverbial modifier or a complement. For example:

①新年快要到了。

②他的生日是昨天。

③明天国庆节了。

④晚上我去看他的时候，他跟朋友谈话呢。

⑤我要在中国学习两年。

例①“新年”作主语。例②“昨天”作宾语。例③“国庆节”作谓语。例④“晚上”作状语。例⑤“两年”作补语。

Example ① 新年 serves as the subjcet, ②昨天 is the object, ③国庆节 is the predicate, ④晚上 is the attributive modifier, ⑤两年 is the complement.

2.1.5 处所词

2.1.5 Place words

表示处所的名词叫处所词。例如：

Place words are words that indicate place. For example:

上边　中间　美国　北京　邮局　图书馆　这里
心里　天上　桥下

处所词的语法功能：

The functions of place words:

处所词在句中可以作主语、宾语、定语、状语等。例如：

Place words may function as a subject, an object, an attributive modifier or an adverbial modifier. For example:

①杭州是有名的花园城市。

②代表团由北京去上海参观访问了。

③外边的空气真新鲜。

④他今天楼上、楼下来回跑了好几趟。

例①“杭州“作主语。例②“北京”“上海”作宾语。例③“外边”作定语。例④“楼上”“楼下”作状语。

In the above examples, ① 杭州 serves as the subject, ②北京，上海 are used as the object, ③外边 is used as the attributive modifier and ④楼上，楼下 are used as the adverbial modifier.

2.2 数词 量词

数词是表示数目的词。量词是表示事物或动作的单位的词。汉语的数词和量词经常合在一起使用。

2.2 Numerals and Measure Words

Numerals are words that express mumbers. Measure words are words that express a unit of things or action. In Chinese, numerals and measure words are often used together.

2.2.1 数词

数词分基数和序数两种，基数又包括整数、分数、小数和倍数。

2.2.1 Numerals

Numerals contain cardinal numbers and ordinal numbers. Cardinal numbers include the whole numbers, fractions, decimals and multiple numbers.

(1) 整数的称数法

(1) Numeration for the whole numbers

1) 一百以内的称数法

汉语用“十进位”来称数。例如：

1) Numeration for numbers under one hundred.

In Chinese, the decimal system is used for numeration. For example:

一	二	三	四	五	六	七	八	九	十
十一	十二	十三	十四	十五	十六	十七	十八	十九	二十
二十一	二十二	二十三	二十四	二十五	二十六	二十七	二十八	二十九	三十
三十一	三十二	三十三	三十四	三十五	三十六	三十七	三十八	三十九	四十
四十一	四十二	四十三	四十四	四十五	四十六	四十七	四十八	四十九	五十
五十一	五十二	五十三	五十四	五十五	五十六	五十七	五十八	五十九	六十
六十一	六十二	六十三	六十四	六十五	六十六	六十七	六十八	六十九	七十
七十一	七十二	七十三	七十四	七十五	七十六	七十七	七十八	七十九	八十
八十一	八十二	八十三	八十四	八十五	八十六	八十七	八十八	八十九	九十
九十一	九十二	九十三	九十四	九十五	九十六	九十七	九十八	九十九	

2) 一百以上称数法

2) Numeration for numbers above one hundred:

		一百
一百零一	一百零五	一百一十
一百一十一	一百五十	二百六十
三百七十五	五百八十四	七百四十五
八百九十九	九百	九百五十三
九百八十五	九百九十	九百九十九

3) 一千以上称数法

3) Numeration for numbers above one thousand:

		一千
一千零一	一千零十九	一千一百
一千二百二十	一千八百零一	两千
三千六百四十四	九千八百九十	一万
一万零一	九万九千八百零三	十万
十万零一		八十三万六千二百八十九
		一百万

汉语里，1，000不能说"十百"，只能说"一千"，10，000不能说"十千"，只能说"一万"。数字达到"万"以上时，以万为单位，如"十万、一百万、一千万"等。

In Chinese, 1000 is "一千" instead of "十百", and 10,000 is "一万" instead of "十千". The character "万" is used as the unit in numeration for the number 10,000, as in "十万" (hundred thousand), "一百万" (one million), "一千万" (ten million), etc.

(2) 分数、小数和倍数的称数法

1) 分数

分数通常的说法是“X 分之 X”，前一个“X”表示分母，后面的“X”表示分子。例如：$\frac{2}{3}$读成“三分之二”，$\frac{6}{10}$读成“十分之六”。

分数前面有整数，读成“*X* 又 *X* 分之 *X*”，例如：$3\frac{3}{20}$ 读成“三又二十分之三”。

分母为 100 的百分数，读成“百分之 X”，如：40%读成“百分之四十”，105%读成“百分之一百零五”。

2) 小数

小数通常的说法是把小数读作“点”，小数点以前按整数读法，小数点以后直接读出每个数字。例如：“0.6”读作“零点六”，“3.14”读作“三点一四”，“23.45”读作“二十三点四五”，“145.67”读作“一百四十五点六七”，或者“一四五点六七”。

(2) Numeration of fraction, decimal and multiple numbers:

1) Fraction

Numeration of fraction normally follows the patten of “X 分之 X”, the first “X” is the denominator, the second “X” is the numberator. For example, $\frac{2}{3}$ is read as 三分之二, $\frac{6}{10}$ is read as 十分之六.

If there is a integer before the fraction, it is read “X 又 X 分之 X”. For example, $3\frac{3}{20}$ is read as 三又二十分之三.

Percentage is read as “百分之 X”. For example:40% is read as “百分之四十”, 105% is read as 百分之一百零五.

2) Decimal

The decimal point is read as 点 (diǎn). The numbers before the decimal point are read as integers. The decimal is read as the numbers are read. For example, 0.6 is read as “零点六”, 3.14 is read as “三点一四”, 23.45 is read as“二十三点四五”, 145.67 is read as “一百四十五点六七” or “一四五点六七”.

3) 倍数

倍数通常的表示法是在数词后加量词“倍”。倍数一般用于表示“增加”的意思。如“九是三的三倍” (9=3X3)，“九比三大两倍” ($\frac{9-3}{3}=2$)。应该注意的是“是……X倍”跟“增加了X倍”的区别。“A是B的X倍”，A与B是相除的关系：即$\frac{A}{B}=X$（倍）；而“A比B增加（多）X倍”，是A减去B之后再与B相除：即$\frac{(A-B)}{B}=X$倍。例如：去年的小麦产量为2000万公斤，今年的产量为6000万公斤，那么今年的产量是去年的三倍，或比去年增加了两倍。

3) Multiple numbers

To express multiple numbers, the measure word 倍 is added after the numeral. Multiple number indicating multiplying. Such as 九是三的三倍 (9 is three times three) (9=3X3), 九比三大两倍 (9 *is twice greater than* 3). We should pay attention to differentiating 是…X倍 from 增加了X倍. A是B的X倍 means that A divides by B = X times. A比B增加（多）X倍 means that A (minus B) divided by B = x 倍. For example: The output of wheat was 2000kgs, last year, this year it is 6000kgs. So the output of wheat this year is three times last year, or the output of wheat this year is twice greater than last year.

(3) 概数

汉语的概数表示法有以下几种：

1) 把两个相邻的数词连在一起。通常数目小的在前，数目大的在后。(九和十一般不能连用表示概数)。例如：

(3) Approximate numbers

In Chinese, there are the following ways to numberate the opproximate numbers.

1) Two successive numerals are used together to express an approximate number. Usually the small number is placed before the big one. (九 and 十 *can not be used to this effect.*) For example:

①他们学校有四五千学生。

②我去过两三次长城。

③那是个十五六岁的姑娘。

2) 数词后加上表示概数的词语。主要有“来”、“多”、“左右”、“上下”等。

2) Adding 来，多，几，左右，上下 after a numeral to express an approximate number.

A. 来

A. 来

“来”用在数词后，表示大概的数目，一般指不到那个数目或比那个数目多一点儿。它一般用在“十”或“百”“千”“万”等的后面，量词的前面。例如：

“来” is put after numerals to express approximate number. It means less than the number or more than the number. Usually it is used after 十，百，千，万 etc. and before measure word. For example:

①他已经开了十来年的汽车了。

②那个高个子的年轻人，大概有三十来岁了。

③他买了二百来张纸。

④今天参加大会的有两千来人。

但是 “来”可以用在度量衡量词后面，这时数词必须是“十”以下的，“来”后面还要有意思上与数量有关的形容词或名词。例如：

When 来 is used after length, capacity, weight measure words, the number should be below 10, and an adjective or noun should be put after 来. For example:

①从火车站到我家有三里来路。

②这只西瓜有五斤来重。

B. 多

B. 多

“多”表示概数，不能单独使用，必须放在整数之后表示零数：

多 as an approximate indicator of number, cannot stand by itself, but must be used after an integer to show the remainder of the number.

"多"放在"十"、"百"、"万"等的数词后边，例如:

多 can be used after 十，百 and 万. For example:

①今天我去买了十多本书。

②这棵古树有五百多年的历史了。

代表个位数后的零头时，"多"放在量词与名词之间，或带量词性的名词后。例如:

多 may be used between a measure word and a noun or after a measure-noun to express the remainder of a round number. For example:

①我来北京已经三个多月了。

②晚上我听了一个多小时录音。

③我学了一年多的汉语了。

C. 几

C. 几

"几"可以用来表示十以下不确定的数目。例如:

几 may be used to indicate an unspecific number smaller than ten. For example:

①我很喜欢这几本小说。

②我朋友在商店买了几斤水果。

"几"还可以用在"十、百、千、万、亿"之前和"十"之后，表示"十"以上的概数。例如:

几 may be followed by 十，百，千，万 and 亿 or preceded by 十 to express an approximate number over ten. For example:

①我们去中国照了十几张相。

②教室里有几十个座位。

③电影厅坐得下几百个人呢!

D. 左右、上下

D. 左右，上下

数词后可以加"左右"表示同那个数目相差不远的概数。例如:

"左右", when added to a numeral, indicates an approximate number which may be either slightly larger or smaller than the number itself. For example:

①那个城市的人口有六百万左右。

②钢产量今年比去年增加了百分之二十左右。

如果有量词，“左右”放在量词之后。例如:

If the number has after it a measure word, “左右” should be placed after the measure word. For example:

①这条大街长 *1000* 米左右。

②这篮子水果有二十斤左右。

如果用于时间，“左右”要放在表示时间的名词之后。例如:

When applying to time, “左右” must be placed after the noun denoting time. For example:

①我在中国学习汉语学了两年左右。

②她用了两个月左右的时间才把那本小说翻译完。

如果用于钱，“左右”也要放在名词“钱”后，但“钱”可以省略。例如:

When applying to money, 左右 must be placed after the word “钱” which, however, can be omitted. For example:

①那本汉英词典得十五块钱左右。

②我只有十块(钱)左右，不够买衬衫的。

“上下”在数量词后可以表示概数，多用于年龄、高度以及重量等。用于表示年龄时，一般适用于成年人。例如:

上下, when added after a numeral, and a measure word, indicates an approximate number of age, length and weight. When applying to age, 上下 is used to indicate the age of adult and old people. For example:

①这个人看上去不过才三十(岁)上下。

②她的身高在一米上下。

③每个人要负重 *50* 公斤上下。

(4) 序数

序数词是表示数目顺序的。汉语的序数词是在基数词前边加上词头“第”便成序数词。例如:“第一”“第二”“第二十五”。序数词与名词连用时要有量词，如“第四个星期”。表示顺序的数词有时也不用“第”，例如“二楼＝第二层楼”,“三班＝第三班”。表示同辈的家庭成员排行的序数，最前面的一个不用“一”，而用形容词“大”，如“大哥、二哥”、“大姐、二姐”等。

(4) Ordinal numbers

An ordinal number designates the place occupied by an item in an ordered sequence. Chinese ordinal numbers are formed by adding the prefix 第 to numerals, e, g, 第一、第二、第二十五. A measure word, however, should be inserted between the ordinal numeral and the following noun, e, g, 第四个星期. 第 is sometimes omitted in numbers designating the order in a sequence, e, g, 二楼 = 第二层楼, 三班 = 第三班. The first brother or sister is not denoted by “一”, but by the adjective 大, e, g. 大哥, 二哥, 大姐, 二姐, etc.

(5) 几个特殊数词的用法

(5) Usages of some special numerals

1) 二和两

“二”和“两”都是表示“2”这个数目。在量词前（或不需要量词的名词前）一般用“两”不用“二”，如“两张飞机票”、“两件衬衫”、“两支笔”。但10以上数目中的“2”，如12、20、22、32、42等数目中的“2”，不管后面有没有量词，仍都用“二”，如“十二个学生”“二十二个朋友”。

1) 二 and 两

Both 二 and 两 mean 2. When 2 comes before a measure word (or before a noun which needs no measure word before it), 两 is used instead of 二, as in 两张飞机票 (two air tickets), 两件衬衫 (two shirts), 两支笔 (two pens). In numbers larger than ten (such as 12, 20, 22, 32, 42) 二 is used irrespective of whether it is followed by a measure word, as in 十二个学生, 二十二个朋友.

2) 半

"半"是一个特殊的数词，它的数量等于二分之一，它不能单独使用。

2) Usage of 半

"半", meaning "half", is a special numeral. It can not be used by itself.

"半"常用在量词前边。例如:

It is often put before a measure word. For example:

①我买了半斤糖。

②她每天只喝半瓶牛奶。

有时也用在整数和量词后边。例如:

半 often follows a whole number + measure word sequence. For example:

①代表团在中国访问了一个半月。

②他买了一斤半水果。

2.2.2 量词

2.2.2 Measure word

量词是表示事物或动作的单位的词。

量词分名量词和动量词两大类。

Measure words are words that express a unit of things or actions, and it can be divided into the nominal measure words and the verbal measure words.

(1) 名量词是表示事物数量的词。例如:

(1) The nominal measure words indicate the quantity of things. For example:

个　只　条　张　件　本　米　斤

数词和量词经常合在一起使用。例如:

The numerals are usually combined with the measure word. For example:

一个　两张　三件　五斤

有些量词借用名词，因而叫借用量词。例如:

Many measure words are borrowed from nouns. Such as:

一只杯　一杯水　一张床　一床被

一辆车　一车货

汉语中许多名词都有自己的特定量词。如“桌子”的量词是“张”，“笔”的量词是“支”，“灯”的量词是“盏”等。应用范围广的名量词是“个”。

In Chinese, many nouns have their own specific measure words. For example, 张 is the measure word for 桌子, 支 is the measure word for 笔, 盏 is the measure word for 灯. 个 is a very common measure word, and is most extensively used.

(2) 动量词是表示动作的数量的词。例如:

(2) The verbal measure words indicate the frequency of an action. For example:

次　回　遍　趟　阵　场　一下

有些动量词借用名词，例如:

Some verbial measure words are borrowed from nouns. Such as:

踢一脚　放一枪　看一眼　叫一声

量词可以重叠。量词重叠有“每”的意思。例如:

Measure words can be repeated to express the meaning of 每 (each, every), For example:

①我们班的同学人人都有《汉英词典》。

②她天天都来得很早。

③看电影，回回都少不了他。

④场场球，他们都赢了。

例①②“人人”、“天天”是名量词的重叠，有“每个人”“每天”的意思。例③④“回回”、“场场”是动量词的重叠，是“每回”，“每场”的意思。

In example ① and②, “人人”and “天天”are repeated, respectively meaning“每个人”(each person),“每天”(every day); ③ and④ “回回”“场场”are repeated verbal measure words, meaning “每回”(every time), “每场”(every game).

2.2.3 数量词

2.2.3 The numeral–measure words

数词和量词一起连用的时候合称数量词。数量词可以在句中充任定语、补语。例如:

The combination of the numeral and measure word is known as the numeral–measure word. In sentences, it can function as attributive modifier or complement. For example:

①我送给玛丽一件生日礼物。

②这篇文章我看了三遍。

数量词可以重叠，重叠后在句中作状语，常用来说明动作的方式。例如：

The repeated form of a numeral–measure word group is often used as adverbial modifier to indicate manner. For example:

①他把学过的课文一篇一篇地复习了一遍。

②他们两个两个地练习对话。

③天气一天一天（地）暖和起来了。

2.2.4 几个量词的用法

2.2.4 The usages of some measure words

(1) 些

"些"是表示不定数量的量词，常和"这"、"那"、"哪"等连用，修饰名词。例如：

(1) The usage of 些

些 is a measure word showing an indefinite quantity and is usually used after 这 (this), 那 (that), 哪 (which) to qualify nouns. For example:

①这些书都是最近出版的。

②我花园的那些花都开了。

③哪些人昨天没有来？

"些"只能和数词"一"连用，不能跟其他数词连用。在口语中，处于谓语动词之后的"一"可以省略。例如：

些 can be used with no other numbrals but "一". In spoken language 一 can be omitted when 一些 stands after the predicative verb. For example:

①我们为晚会准备了一些点心。

②我们给大家买了一些报。

(2) 一点儿

"一点儿"是表示少量的不定量词（比"一些"要少）。在口语中，它不在句首时，"一"可以省略。例如:

(2) The usage of 一点儿

一点儿, a measure word, indicates an indefinite small quantity usually smallar than what is indicate& by 一些. "一" can be omitted at any place in a sentence except at the beginning. For example:

①咖啡里请放（一）点儿糖。

②桌子上一点儿灰尘都没有。

"一点儿"常用来修饰名词。当语言环境清楚时，它所修饰的名词可以省略。例如

一点儿 is more often than not used to qualify a noun. The noun can be omitted if the reference is clear. For example:

A: 咖啡里要放糖吗?

B: 请放一点儿（糖）。

(3) 下儿

"下儿"是动量词，有两种含义。

(3) The usage of 下儿

下儿 is a verbal measure word.

1) 表示具体的动作单位。例如:

1) Indicating the number of times something bappens. For example:

①钟敲了五下儿。

②他打了两下儿鼓。

2)"下儿"前边用上"一"，有两种作用:

2) When 一 is used before 下儿, it has two functions:

①"一"重读时，表示具体的动作单位，如"我打了一下儿，他打了两下儿"。

① when 一 is pronounced with a strong stress, 下儿 has a concrete meaning —— the frequency of an action. For example:

我打了一下儿，他打了两下儿。

②"一"轻读时，表示动作经历的时间短暂。例如:

② when 一 has a weak stress, 下儿 shows that an action lasts for a very short time. For example:

①今天我得去看他一下儿。

②请等一下儿，我马上就来。

2.3 动词

2.3.1 动词是表示人或事物的动作、行为或变化的词。例如:

去 教 叫 学习 看见 帮助

汉语的动词在句中主要充当谓语。例如:

①大家努力学习。

②王平教汉语。

例①中“学习”和例②中“教”在句中均作谓语。

动词前面一般都可以受“不”“没有”修饰。例如:

不去 不教 不学习 不认识

没有走 没有看 没有写 没有讨论

大多数动词后面能加“了”“着”“过”。例如:

说了 看了 念着 研究着 去过

多数动词都能带宾语，例如:

去学校 教汉语 帮助同学 介绍情况

部分动词可以作结果补语、趋向补语和可能补语。例如:

2.3 Verbs

2.3.1 Verbs are the words that express the action, behaviour or change of a person or a thing. For example:

In Chinese sentences, verbs normally function as predicates. For example:

In the above examples ①学习 and ②教 (to teach) are both predicates.

Verbs can be modified by adverbs 不 or 没有. For example:

Aspect particles 了,着,过 can be added after most verbs. For example:

Most verbs can take objects after them. For example:

Some verbs can be used as resultative, directional or potential complements. For example:

①我听懂了他的话。

②我的字典让我朋友借去了。

③我走不动了，坐车去吧。

例①“懂”作结果补语。例②“去”作趋向补语。例③“动”作可能补语。

In example ① 懂 is used as resultative complement, ② 去 is directional complement and ③ 动 is used as potential complement.

动词有时可以作定语及主语、宾语。少数动词可以充任状语。例如:

Sometimes verbs can be used as attributive modifier, subject and object. A few verbs can function as adverbial modifier. For example:

①今天来的同学很多。

②游泳是一种很好的体育运动。

③这个问题我们还要进行讨论。

④我们应该批判地继承一切文化遗产。

例①“来”作定语。例②“游泳”作主语。例③“讨论”作宾语。例④“吃惊”作状语。

In the above examples ①来 is the attributive modifier, ②游泳 is the subject, ③讨论 is the object and ④吃惊 is the adverbial modifier.

2.3.2 动词的重叠

2.3.2 Duplication of verbs

表示动作的动词可以重叠。重叠的形式，单音节的用“AA”，双音节的一般用“ABAB”。动词重叠之后，表示动作经历的时间短暂，语气缓和，有时也表示尝试。常用在恳求或商量的场合，动作一般还没有发生。例如:

The verbs denoting actions can be duplicated. The patten is ″AA″ for monosyllabic verbs and ABAB for disyllabic verbs. This device is usually employed when one wish to indicate that the action is of very short duration, to make the verbs milder in tone. Sometimes a verb is duplicated to imply that what is done is just for the purpose of trying something out: It is often employed for earnest request or consultation. The action denoted by a verb in duplicated form is usually one that is yet to take place or is just going on. For example:

①老师让我们再想想这个问题。

②他病了，我们去看看他吧。

③请你介绍介绍北京的情况。

④明天考试了，你应该复习复习课文和生词。

但是，不表示动作的动词如“有”、“在”、“是”、“像”等不能重叠；重叠的动词一般不能作定语或状语。

But, verbs such as 有、在、是、像 which do not show actions can never be duplicatied. Generally a duplicated verb cannot function as an attributive modifier or as an adverbial modifier.

2.3.3 能愿动词

2.3.3 Optative verbs

能愿动词也叫助动词。它放在动词前，表示愿望、需要或可能，例如：“要”、“会”、“能”、“可以”、“应该”等。除个别情况外，能愿动词只能用“不”否定。例如：

Optative verbs, or auxillary verbs, such as 要，会，能，可以 and 应该 are used before verbs to express a desire, necessity or possibility. Optative verbs are made negative by means of 不 except in few exceptions. For example:

①他要研究中国文学。

②我们会说英语，也会说汉语。

③我不会开汽车。

这种句子的正反疑问式通常是并列能愿动词的肯定和否定形式。例如：

The affirmative–negative form of this kind of sentences is usually made by juntaposing the affirmative and negative forms of optative verbs. For example:

①你会不会画画儿？

②你能不能来我这儿一趟？

能愿动词不能重叠，后边不能带动态助词。

Optative verbs can never be duplicated nor can they be followed by aspect particles.

几个能愿动词的用法：

The usages of some optative verbs:

(1) 要

(1) The usage of the optative verb 要

"要"既是动词也是能愿动词。它在动词或形容词前面是能愿动词，表示愿望或意志，它跟后面的动词或形容词在一起充当谓语。否定形式是在"要"前面加"不"。例如：

要 is both verb and optative verb. When used before a verb or an adjective, 要 is a optative verb. It shows one's desire or will. 要 and the verb or adjective after it function together as the predicate of a sentence. The usual pattern is "...要 + V (adj.) ...". The negative form is "...不要 + V (adj.)". For example:

①我要去中国旅行。

②我要休息一会儿。

③他不要买英语词典，他要买一本汉语词典。

"要"还能表示事实上的需要。否定形式是"不用"。例如：

要 also expresses an actual need. Its negative form is 不用. For example:

①这个句子要翻译成汉语吗？

②这个问题要回答吗？

这个问题不用回答。

(2) 想

(2)The usage of 想

"想"既是动词，也是能愿动词。可以用在别的动词前面作谓语，表示希望或打算进行某种活动，意思和"要"差不多。否定形式是在"想"前面加"不"。例如：

想 is an optative verb as well as an ordinary verb. As an optative verb, it is used before another verb, and acts as the predicate. 想 indicates hope or intention, and is synonymous with 要. The usual patten is "…想 + V…" and the negative form is "…不想 + V…", For example:

①我想听一会儿音乐。

②星期日他想进城买东西。

③玛丽想买中国小说，她不想买英语词典。

(3) 会

“会”是动词，也是能愿动词。能愿动词“会”表示通过学习掌握了某种技能。否定形式是在“会”前面加“不”。例如：

(3) The usage of 会

会 is an optative verbs as well as an ordinary verb. As an optative verb, 会 denotes skill acquired or mastered as a result of study. The usual pattern is“...会 + V...”and the negative form is “...不会 + V...”. For example:

①她会说汉语，也会说日语。

②他会唱中国民歌。

③你会不会游泳？

我不会游泳。

“会”还可以表示有能力进行某种活动，或有可能出现某种状态。否定形式是在“会”前面加“不”例如：

会 also indicates an ability to do something or the likelihood of something to happen. The negative form is “...不会 + V...”. For example:

①玛丽会写很多汉字了

②她会唱中国民歌了。

③下雨了，他会来吗？

④这么晚了，他不会来了。

(4) 能和可以

能愿动词“能”和“可以”都表示有能力作某事。例如：

(4) The usages of 能 and 可以

The optative verbs 能 and 可以 can both be used to express the ability to do something. For example:

①约翰能写很多很多汉字。

②我们可以翻译这篇文章。

“能”和“可以”还表示客观条件允许或禁止。例如：

能 and 可以 may also be used to express a kind of possibility as a result of circumstances or lack of it depending on circumstances. For example:

①你们今年能不能学完这本书?

②可以进来吗?

③图书馆里不可以吸烟。

除了在表示禁止时能用"不可以"以外,"能"和"可以"的否定形式一般是"不能"。例如:

不可以 usually expresses prohibition. The negative form of both 能 and 可以 is 不能 indicating inability to do something. For example:

这里不能吸烟。

(5) 应该

能愿动态"应该"表示情理上或事实上的需要。例如:

(5) The usage of 应该

The optative verb 应该 indicates need arising from moral or factual necessity. For example:

①你们学得不错,应该去中国。

②学习汉语,你们应该会说,会听,会写。

③这次旅行,应该带足用的东西。

④你不应该听他的话。

2.3.4 几个动词的用法

2.3.4 The usages of some verbs

(1) 在

"在"除了作副词和介词以外,还可以作动词。"在"作动词时,表示所在,说明人或事物所处的地点或位置,后面常带表示处所的宾语。否定形式是"不在"。例如:

(1) The usage of 在

Besides being an adverb and preposition, 在 may also be used as a verb. The verb 在 means "to be, to exist, to be living", indicating where a person or thing is. It is often followed by an object expressing place or position. The negative form is 不在. For example:

①玛丽在图书馆,不在教室。

②王老师在学校,不在家。

③我们的学校在北京,不在上海。

(2) 是

动词"是"的作用是对前面的人或事物加以判断或说明。由它构成的形式，肯定形式是"名词（代词）+是+名词（代词）"，否定形式是"名词（代词）+不是+名词（代词）"。例如:

(2) The usage of 是

The verb 是 is used to define the person(s) or thing(s) preceding it. Affirmation is expressed by noun (pronoun) +是+noun (pronoun) and negation is expressed by noun (pronoun) + 不是 + noun (pronoun). For example:

①玛丽是澳大利亚人。
②约翰是工程师。
③这是汉语词典。
④玛丽不是澳大利亚人。
⑤约翰不是工程师。

(3) 有

1) 动词"有"作谓语主要成分的句子常表示领有或者存在，常带宾语。"有"与宾语中间往往有数量词。"有"表示存在时，句子的主语经常是表示时间或处所的名词或方位短语。它的否定形式是在"有"前加副词"没"（而不是"不"），正反问句则为"……有没有……"例如:

(3) The usage of 有

1) Sentence with 有 as its main predicate denotes possession or existence. 有 functions as the main element of the predicate. It often takes an object ofter it. There is often a quantity word between 有 and its object. When 有 means "exist", the subject is usually a noun or a position phrase indicating either time or place. The negative form is made by preceding 有 with 没 (and never with 不). "有没有" is used to construct an affirmative-negative question with 有. For example:

①我有英文小说，没有中文小说。
②他有两本词典，一本汉语词典，一本英语词典。
③学校里有图书馆、礼堂、食堂、还有银行、商店。
④今天晚上有中文电影，没有英文电影。
⑤你家有没有汽车?

2) 动词“有”有时在数量词前面表示达到某个数量，例如:

2) 有 is sometimes used before a quantity word to indicate that a certain number has been reached. For example:

①长城的历史有两千多年了。

②我们学过的汉字有几百个了。

③约翰有两米多高。

3) 动词“有”可以构成兼语句，它的位置一般在兼语前面。由“有”构成的兼语句很多是没有主语的。例如:

3) 有 may be used in a pivotal sentence. It is usually placed before the pivotal verb. Many of the pivotal sentences with the verb 有 are without a subject. For example:

①我有个朋友叫丁云。

②星期天有很多人去海边游泳。

③昨天有个同学来看你。

4) 动词“有”可以表示估量。例如:

4) 有 expresses estimating. For example:

①这棵树有楼房那么高。

②我看他今年有三十五、六岁了。

5) 动词“有”还可以表示列举。例如:

5) 有 also can express enumeration. For example:

①图书馆的书很多，有中文的，有英文的，
还有日文的，法文的。

②代表团成员中有教授，有工程师，有医生。

2.4 形容词

2.4 Adjectives

2.4.1 形容词是表示人或事物的形状、性质，或动作、行为、变化的状态的词。例如:

2.4.1 Adjectives are words that describe the shape, quality or state of a person or a thing. For example:

清楚　干净　高兴　客气　正确
大　　红　　快　　新　　冷

大多数形容词可受程度副词的修饰，如“很红”、“非常干净”。也可以加否定副词“不”，如“不红”、“不于净”；形容词不能带宾语。有时带宾语，这时，它们就兼属动词了；大多数形容词后边可以加“了”。如“红了”，“好了”，“干净了”。形容词还可以重叠。

Adjectives can be modified or restricted by an adverb, e.g. 很红 (very red), 非常干净 (very clean). It also can be modified by negative adverb 不, e.g. 不红 (not red). 不干净 (not clean). It cannot take object after it. If it takes an object, it is a verb simutaneously. Most adjectives can take suffix 了 after it, e.g. 红了 (be red), 好了 (getting well), 干净了 (to become clean). Adjectives also can be repeated.

2.4.2　形容词的语法功能

2.4.2 The functions of adjectives

形容词在句中主要做定语、谓语、状语和补语。例如:

In Chinese sentences adjectives normally function as attributive modifiers, predicates, adverbtal modifiers or complements. For example:

①我有一辆新汽车。
②他有一件漂亮的衬衫。
③她今天很高兴。
④小李经常早来晚走。
⑤他努力学习，积极工作。
⑥衣服洗干净了。
⑦你的话我听明白了。

例①②中的“新”“漂亮”作定语。双音节形容词作定语后边一般要加“的”。例③“高兴”作谓语。例④⑤“早”“晚”“努力”“积极”作状语。例⑥⑦“干净”、“明白”作补语。

In the above examples, ①②新 and 漂亮 (beautiful) are attributive modifiers. Used as an attributive modifier, a disyllablic adjective as a rule takes 的 after it. In example ③，高兴 (happy) is predicate. In example ④⑤, 早 (early), 晚 (late), 努力 (try hard), 积极(active) are adverbial modifiers. In examples ⑥⑦,干净 (clean), 明白 (understand) are complements.

2.4.3 形容词的重叠

汉语的形容词，有一部分可以重叠起来使用。形容词重叠之后，语气比原来强，本身已包含有程度，所以前面一般不再受程度副词“很”，“非常”修饰。

重叠的形式，单音节的形容词重叠是 AA 式，双音节的形容词重叠是 ABAB。例如：

2.4.3 Repetition of adjectives

In Chinese certain types of adjectives may be duplicated. Repetition of adjectives gives more emphasis and, as it implies a high degree, such adjecfives are usually not modified by adverbs of degree.

The form of repetition is AA for monosyllabic adjectives and AABB for disyllabic adjectives. For example:

①这孩子有一对大大的眼睛，高高的鼻子。

②你身体不好，要好好休息。

③张大夫仔仔细细地给病人作了检查。

④他们正在认认真真地听讲座。

2.5 副词

2.5 Adverbs

2.5.1 副词是表示动作、行为、发展变化的时间、范围或性质、状态的词。例如：

2.5.1 Adverbs are words that modify verbs or adjectives by expressing time, scope, quality, state or degree. For example:

不　都　很　正在　已经　立刻

再　又　就　非常　刚才　一起

副词可以修饰动词和形容词，但不能修饰名词。例如可以说“不去”、“正在看电影”、“已经开始”、“不好”、“很努力”、“非常幸福”等。不能说“不老师”、“很学生”等。

Adverbs can modify verbs and adjectives, but do not modify nouns. For example: It is correct to say 不去 (not go), 正在看电影 (is seeing picture), 已经开始 (It alread starts), 不好 (not good), 很努力 (very hard), 非常幸福 (very happy), ete. But it is not correct to say 不老师，很学生, etc.

大部分副词不能单独回答问题。如有人问:“昨天的演出好吗?”可用“好”单独回答问题。如有人问:“昨天的演出很好吗?”，肯定的回答只能是“很好”、“好”，不能回答“很”。少数副词，如“一定”、“也许”等可以单独回答问题。

Most adverbs cannot on its own answer questions. If someone asks: 昨天的演出好吗? (Was yesterday's performance good?) we can answer 好 (good). If he asks 昨天的演出很好吗? (Was yesterday's performance very good?) affirmatitive answer is 很好 (very good), or 好 (good), but not 很 (very). A few exceptions such as 一定 (definite), 也许 (perhaps) can answer questions.

2.5.2 副词的语法功能：副词的语法功能主要是充任状语。例如:

2.5.2 The functions of adverbs

Adverbs normally are used as adverbial modifiers. For example:

①我昨天刚到北京。

②他已经回国了。

③他非常忙。

有的副词在句中可以起关联作用，常用来连接两个动词或形容词，也可以连接两个短语或分句。例如:

In sentences, some adverbs can connect two verbs, adjectives or two phrases and even two clauses. For example:

①说干就干。

②再大的困难也不怕。

③如果下雨就不去。

④刚来中国时，我连一个汉字也不认识。

⑤即使我们取得再大的成就，也没有任何骄傲自大的理由。

例(1)是用单个副词“就”关联的。例(2)是用两个不同的副词“再”“也”关联的。例(3)是用一个连词“如果”和一个副词“就”关联的。例(4)是用一个介词“连”和一个副词“也”关联的。(5)是用一个连词“即使”和一个副词“也”关联的。

In the above examples, ① 就 connects 干 and 干(do), ② 再 is connected by 也, ③ the conjunction 如果 is connected by the adverb 就, ④ the preposition 连 is connected by the adverb 也, and ⑤ the preoposition 即使 is connected by the adverb 也.

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2.5.2 The usages of some adverbs

(1) 都

(1) The usage of 都

“都”是表示总括的副词。说明被概括的对象都在所指范围之内，没有一个例外。“都”所总括的对象应该是多数的，而且它们必须放在“都”的前面。例如:

都 is an adverb of scope. It means "all", "in all case","with no exception". What is modified by 都 must be in the plural and placed before 都. For example:

①我们都是学生。

②咱们都学习汉语。

例①说明“我们”中间没有一个不是学生。例②说明“咱们”中间没有一个不学汉语。

In the above examples, ① means "Everyone of us, with no exception, is a student", ② means "Everyone of us with no exception, studies Chinese."

“都”有时与语气助词“了”相呼应，起加强语气的作用，有“已经”的意思。例如:

都 is sometimes used in combination with the modal particle 了 to intensify the tone of the sentence. For example:

①时间过得真快，都十二月了。

②你都十八了，还不知道用功。

(2) 也

副词"也"修饰动词或形容词，作状语，表示并列，说明两种情况相同。它有时单用，有时连用。例如:

(2) The usage of 也

The adverb 也 may be used as an adverbial modifier to modify a verb or an adjective. It expresses the similarity between two things or simularity. It may be used alone or in combination with other adverbs. For example:

①我去图书馆，他也去图书馆。

②约翰从朋友家来，我也从朋友家来。

③大家谈得很亲切，也很随便。

④我借中文小说，也借英文小说。

"都"和"也"并用时，一般是"也"在前，"都"在后。例如:

Used simultaneously in a sentence, 也 usually precedes 都。For example:

他们去公园玩儿，我们也都去公园玩儿。

(3) 不

副词"不"用在动词或形容词前面，表示对动作行为或性质状态的否定。例如:

(3) The usage of 不

The adverb 不, which occurs before a verb or an adjective, negates the action or the quality. For example:

①王老师不教英语。

②约翰不去学校。

③我很忙，他不忙。

(4) 没、没有

"没"、"没有"在动词或形容词前面时，否定动作或状态的发生或出现，是副词，作状语。常用格式是"……没（没有）+动词（形容词）……"。例如:

(4) The usage of 没 or 没有

没 or 没有 before a verb or an adjective denies that an action has taken place or a state of things exists. It is an adverb and is used as an adverbial modifier. The usual pattern is "… 没 (没有) +V. (adj.) …". For example:

①昨天我没去医院。

②张老师今天没有来办公室。

③他刚来北京，生活还没有习惯。

(5) 还

副词“还”修饰动词或形容词，作状语，表示动作重复、状况持续不变，或者事项扩大、程度加强。例如:

(5) The usage of 还

Used as an adverbial modifier, the adverb 还 modifies a verb or an adjective. It expresses the repetition of an action, the continuity of a state, the further development of an event, or its reaching a high degree. For example:

①我明天还要去银行。

②已经三月了，天气还冷呢!

③我们还不能翻译这本书。

④他们还在打球呢。

⑤你把他的字典，还有钢笔，都给他带去。

⑥明天的风力还要增大。

(6) 就

“就”在动词前边是副词，表示动作很早就发生，或很快要发生。例如。

(6) The usage of 就

When used before a verb, 就 is an adverb, indicating that an action either took place a long time ago or will soon take place. For example:

①约翰去年就来中国了。

②这本小说，我昨天就看完了。

③北京饭店就到了。

④小明明天就要回来了。

“就”有时表示后一个动作紧接着前一个动作发生，常和“一”，“刚”或者“还”等词配合使用。例如:

Sometimes 就 indicates that the action referred to by the verb after it, takes place immediately after the action referred to by the former verb. In this usage 就 often goes together with 一, 刚 or 还. For example:

①他一毕业就回国了。

②希望你一到北京就来信。

③他还没吃完饭，就去学校了。

④他病刚好就上班了。

(7) 才

副词"才"修饰动词，作状语，说明动作或事情刚刚发生不久。例如:

(7) The usage of 才

The adverb 才 modifies a verb, giving the idea that some action or event has just happened. For example:

①电影才开始。

②小明才回家。

③约翰才去邮局。

"才"还表示事情发生得迟或结束得晚。例如:

才 is also used to indicate that something takes place or is finished rather late. For example:

①冬天七点钟天才亮。

②玛丽昨天才到中国。

③我今年不去北京，明年才去。

(8) 又

副词"又"经常修饰动词或形容词，作状语，表示相同的动作或状况重复发生，或不同的动作、事件交替出现。例如:

(8) The usage of 又

The adverb 又 is often used as an adverbial modifier to modify a verb or an adjective. It indicates the repetition of an action or a state of things. It may also indicate some different actions or events taking place alternately. For example:

①约翰先生今年又来中国了。

②张文的弟弟比以前又长高了一些。

③晚会上大家又吃又喝，又唱又跳。

④听说我要去北京学习，妈妈高兴，又不高兴。

(9) 再

(9) The usage of 再

副词"再"在动词前面，表示一个动作或一种状况重复发生或继续出现。例如:

Used before a verb, 再 indicates the repetition of an action or a state of things, or its continued presence. For example:

①我还不懂，请老师再讲一遍。

②他要再买一本汉语词典。

③玛丽想再听一会儿音乐。

④再去北京，给我带回点儿好吃的。

"再"还表示一个动作将在另一动作结束后出现。例如:

再 can also be used to indicate an action that takes place after another action. For example.

①看完这个节目再走。

②别着急，写完这个汉字再写那个。

"再"跟"又"的区别是:"又"所指的动作是已经实现的,"再"所指的动作是还没有实现或带有假定性的。

The difference between 再 and 又 refers to an action already realized whereas 再 refers to an action yet to be realized or supposed to take place.

2.6 代词

2.6 Pronouns

2.6.1 代词是代替名词、动词、形容词等的词。汉语的代词分为三类:

2.6.1 Pronouns are words that stand for nouns, verbs and adjectives. Chinese pronouns are classified as following:

(1) 人称代词

(1) Personal pronouns. For example:

我	你	他	我们	咱们	你们
他们	自己	大家	别人	它们	

(2) 指示代词

(2) Demonstrative pronouns. For example:

这　　那　　这儿　　那儿　　这么

那么　　这样　　那样　　这么样　　那么样

(3) 疑问代词

(3) Interrogative pronouns. For example:

谁　　什么　　哪　　哪儿　　怎么

怎样　　怎么样　　多会儿　　多少　　几

人称代词是代替人或事物的词，具有名词的一般特点，可以作主语、宾语和定语，但不能作谓语，前面可以加介词。

Personal pronouns are words that stand for person or thing. It has the feature of nouns and functions as subjects, objects or attributive modifiers but it cannot be used as predicate. Preposition can be added before it.

指示代词可以指代人或事物。"这"用来指代离说话人较近的，"那"用来指代离说话人较远的。例如:

Demonstrative pronoun stands for either a person or thing. 这 (this) refers to what is nearer to the speaker, 那 to what is farther. For example:

①这是英语词典，那是汉语词典。

②这是王老师，那是张老师。

疑问代词可以放在主语或宾语的位置，表示疑问的对象，构成疑问句。问人用"谁"，问事物用"什么"，"哪"，问方式或性状用"怎么"、"怎样"或"怎么样"，问处所用"哪儿"、"哪里"，问时间用"多儿会"，问数目用"多少"、"几"。

Interrogative pronouns take the place either of the subject or of the object in a sentence, as their reference may be. 谁 is used to ask about a person; 什么, 哪 about a thing; 怎么, 怎样 or 怎么样 about means or situation, 哪儿, 哪里 about a place; 多会儿 about time; 多少 and 几 about quantity.

2.6.2 几个常用代词的用法

(1) 人称代词　你和您　他和她

"你"和"您"都是单数第二人称代词。"你"是一般称呼，"您"是尊敬或客气的称呼。"你"的复数是后面加词尾"们"，即"你们"。"您"的复数是后面加数量词，例如"您二位"。

"他"和"她"都是单数第三人称代词。在书写上"他"代表男性，"她"代表女性。"他"和"她"在语音形式上没有区别，都念ta。如果男、女都是多数，在书写上男的用"他们"，女的用"她们"。如果里面有男有女时，用"他们"，不用"她们"。

(2) 人称代词"我们"和"咱们"

"我们"和"咱们"都是复数第一人称代词。"咱们"包括说话人和听话人。"我们"有时包括说话人和听话人，有时只代表说话人一方，不包括听话人一方。例如：

2.6.2 The usages of some pronouns

(1) Personal pronouns 你 and 您, 他 and 她

Both 你 and 您 (nin) are second person singular pronouns. 你 is the usual form while 您 is the respectful or polite form of address. The plural of 你 is formed by the suffix 们, ie. 你们. The plural of 您 is formed by using a numeral, e.g. 您二位.

他 and 她, both pronounced as "Ta", are third person sigular pronouns. In writing 他 is masculin and 她 is feminine; their plural forms are 他们 and 她们 respectively. When both male and females are referred to, 他们, not 她们, is used.

(2) Personal pronouns 我们 and 咱们

Both 我们 and 咱们 are first person plural pronouns. However 咱们 includes the speaker and the person spoken to. While 我们 may be inclusive or exclusive, i.e. the person spoken to may be included or excluded. For example:

①我们（咱们）都是学生，你学习日语，我学习汉语。

②你学习汉语，我们不学习，我们学习日语。

例①中“我们（咱们）”包括说话人和听话人双方。例②中的“我们”只代表说话人一方，不包括听话人一方。

In example ①, 我们 （咱们） includes both the speaker and the person spoken to. In example ② 我们 denotes the speakers only, i.e. the peson spoken to being excluded.

2.7 介词

2.7 Prepositions

2.7.1 介词是置于名词、代词或某些短语前组成介词短语，共同表示动作行为的方向、对象、时间、处所等的词。例如:“他在学校工作。”“他们沿着湖边散步。”“汽车从大桥上开过去了。”

2.7.1 Prepositions are words that are placed before nouns, pronouns or phrase to form a prepositional phrase and are used together to express the direction, object, time, place, etc. of an action. For example: 他在学校工作。(He works at the school), 他们沿着湖边散步(They walk by the lake). “汽车从大桥上开过去了。”

常用的介词有:

Prepositions in common usages are:

在、从、自、朝、往、给、把、被、叫、
让、跟、和、同、到、对、对于、关于、
按照、根据、为着、为了等。

介词是虚词，不能单独回答问题，也不能直接充当句子成分。例如:“他从上海”、“我对他”、“她把花”都不是完整的句子；它只有与名词、代词或名词短语、动词短语、形容词短语、主谓短语等结合在一起组成介词短语，才能充任句子成分。介词不能重叠。介词后面的词语是介词的宾语。

Prepositions are form words and cannot on their own answer questions. They cannot be used as predicates. e. g. 他从上海，我对他，or 她把花。 These are not complete sentences. Prepositions cannot function as the elements of sentence. They must be used together with nouns, noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, subject–predicate phrases, etc. to form prepositional phrases. Then they can be used as the elements of sentence. The words after the preposition are the objects of the preposition. Prepositions cannot be used in a duplicated way.

2.7.2 介词短语的语法功能

2.7.2 The grammatical functions of preposition phrases.

(1) 作状语　这是介词短语主要的语法功能。例如:

(1) Used as adverbial modifiers: This is the normal function of prepositions. For example:

①我在北京语言学院学习汉语。

②我的一个老朋友从美国来了。

③中国朋友给我们介绍了这里的情况。

(2) 作定语　介词短语与中心语之间一定要加"的"。例如:

(2) Used as attributive modifiers: It must take 的 after it and before the central words. For example:

①我们对汉语语法的研究，还有很多工作要做。

②这些沿街的大楼都是最近几年盖起来的。

③古时候流传着不少关于这位诗人的故事。

(3) 作补语　能组成介词短语充任补语的介词有"于"、"向"、"自"等。例如:

(3) Used as complements: Only prepositional phrases formed by 于, 向, 自 can be used as complements. For example:

①鲁迅先生生于 *1881* 年。

②我们从胜利走向胜利。

③我们都是来自五湖四海。

(4) 作宾语　常用作宾语的介词短语是"为…"、"在…"组成的短语，而且多见于"是"字句中。例如:

(4) Used as objects: Prepositional phrases often used as objects are those formed by 为…, 在…, and this kind of prepositional phrases are often used in the 是 sentences. For example:

①我这次来北京主要是为了学习汉语。

②我跟约翰第一次见面是在机场上。

2.7.3 几个常用介词的用法

2.7.3 The usages of some prepositions

(1) 在

(1) The usage of 在

介词"在"跟名词或表示时间、处所、方位的词语一起组成介词短语，修饰动词，作状语，表示动作发生的时间、处所等。否定形式是在"在"的前面加"不"。例如：

The preposition 在 combines with a noun or phrase denoting time, place or direction to form a prepositional phrase which is used as an adverbial modifier to express the time or place of an action. Negation is achieved by adding 不 before 在. For example:

①她爱人不在银行工作，在邮局工作。

②我们不在电影院看电影，在学校礼堂看电影。

介词"在"的宾语一般是表示时间或地点的词语。一个不表示地点的名词或代词，必须在后边加上"这儿"或"那儿"，才能作"在"的宾语，组成介词短语，修饰动词，表示处所。例如：

The object of the preposition 在 is usually a word or phrase denoting time or place. In the case of a noun or pronoun not indicating place, 这儿 or 那儿 must be added to it before it becomes the object of the preposition 在, forming a prepositional phrase qualifying the predicate verb. For example:

①我们在朋友那里玩儿。

②他在张明那儿吃饭。

(2) 从

(2) The usage of 从

"从"是表示起点的介词，它经常同表示时间、处所的名词或名词性短语结合，组成介词短语，修饰动词，作状语。例如：

从 is a preposition indicating a starting point. It is usually combined with a noun or nominal phrase that denotes time or place to form a prepositional phrase. It is used as an adverbial modifier modifying a verb by telling when or where the action starts. For example:

①他从去年就在这里学习。

②他今天刚从上海来。

③我从学校进城去。

一个不表示地点的名词或代词，也只有在后边加上“这儿”或“那儿”，才能作介词“从”的宾语。例如：

If the noun or pronoun after 从 does not indicate place, 这儿 or 那儿 must be added after that noun or pronoun before a prepositional phrase could be formed indicating place. For example:

①我从朋友那儿来。

②他从我这儿去书店。

(3) 跟、和

(3) The usage of 跟 and 和

介词“跟”与“和”同名词或代词组成介词短语，修饰动词，作状语，说明动作的对象。“跟”与“和”的用法差不多，只是“跟”更口语一些。例如：

The prepositions 跟 and 和 are combined with a noun or pronoun to form prepositional phrases, which modify verbs as adverbial modifiers. The prepositional phrases indicate the object of an action. 跟 and 和 are similar in usage. But 跟 is more colloquial. For example:

①昨天他跟朋友去公园玩了。

②我常常跟他们用汉语谈话。

③这件事我已经跟大家商量过了。

④我已经和他介绍了这里的情况。

(4) 给

(4) The usage of 给

介词“给”同名词、代词组成介词短语，作状语，表示动作的对象。例如：

The preposition 给 is combined with a noun or pronoun to form a prepositional phrase, which is used as an adverbial modifier modifying a verb. It introduces the receiver of an action. For example:

①我给同学买了三张电影票。

②玛丽给学校写了一封信。

③大夫给病人打了针。

(5) 向

介词“向”同名词或代词组成介词短语，作状语，表示动作进行的方向。例如:

(5) The usage of 向

The preposition 向 is combined with a noun or pronoun to form a prepositional phrase, functioning as an adverbial. It shows the direction in which an action goes. For example:

①图书馆向东走，学生宿舍向西走。

②你一直向前走，就是商场。

“向”可以在动词后作补语。例如:

向 may be used after a verb and function as a complement. For example:

①我们要从胜利走向胜利。

②这列火车是开向广州的。

由“向”组成的介词短语，可以表示动作的对象。例如:

Prepositional phrases with 向 may also denote the object of an action. For example:

①我向朋友借了辆自行车。

②我们都要向他学习。

(6) 对

介词“对”跟名词或代词一起组成介词短语，修饰动词或形容词，作状语。修饰动词时，表示动作的对象，修饰形容词时，表示对待。例如:

(6) The usage of 对

The preposition 对 is combined with a noun or pronoun to form a prepositional phrase. Used as an adverbial modifier it denotes the object of an action when it modifies a verb, and the object of an attitude when it modifies an adjective. For example:

①他对大家的帮助表示感谢。

②我对他笑了笑，就走了。

③她对人很热情。

④学生对老师很尊敬。

例①②"对"表示动作的对象，例③④"对"表示对待。

In the above examples, ① and ② denote the object of an action, while ③ and ④ denote the object of an attitude.

(7) 为

(7) The Usage of 为

介词"为"跟名词、代词组成介词短语，作动词的状语，表示动作的对象。由"为"引出的对象，多数是动作的受益者。例如:

The preposition 为 is combined with a noun or pronoun to form a prepositional phrase, which is used as an adverbial modifier modifying a verb. It denotes the receiver of an action. The receiver, introduced by 为, is in most cases a beneficiary of the action. For example:

①我为他准备了一份生日礼物。

②老师常常为我辅导汉语。

③她为大家表演了一个节目。

(8) 为了

(8) The usage of 为了

介词"为了"跟名词、代词或主谓短语组成介词短语，作状语，表示目的或原因，它可以用在主语前面。例如:

The preposition 为了 is combined with a noun, pronoun, a subject-predicate phrase or other parts of speech to form a prepositional phrase. It functions as an adverbial modifier of purpose or cause. It may occur before a subject. For example:

①为了学习汉语，我们来到了中国。

②为了我们的友谊，干杯!

③我们为了更好地了解中国，准备去外地旅行。

2.8 连词

2.8.1 连词是连接词、短语或分句的虚词。

常用的连词有：

和　跟　同　与　及　并

而　并且　而且　既然　或　或者

因为……所以……　不但……而且……

虽然……但是……　只要……就……

不是……就是……　要是……就……

连词不能充当句子成分，主要表示词、短语、或分句之间的某种关系。这种关系大体上可以分两大类：

(1) 联合关系，例如：

2.8 Conjunctions

2.8.1 Conjunctions are form words that connect words, phrases or clauses.

Conjunctions in common use are:

Conjunction cannot function as a grammatical unit in a sentence, but expresses various relationships between words, phrases and clauses. Relationships represented by conjunctions can be divided in to two groups:

(1) Coordinate relationship. For example:

工业和农业　　工业或者农业

"工业和农业"里的"和"表示"工业"和"农业"之间是并列的联合关系。"工业或者农业"里的"或者"表示"工业"和"农业"之间是并列的选择关系

和 in the phrase of 工业和农业 indicates that 工业 and 农业 are coordinate. 或者(or) in the phrase of 工业或者农业 indicates that 工业 and 农业 are alternatives.

(2) 偏正关系，例如：

(2) subordinate relationship. For example:

①因为我工作忙，所以没来看你。

②风虽然大，可是大家并不觉得冷。

上述两个例句的"因为……所以……"、"虽然……可是……"连接的都是两个分句。例①表示两个分句的因果关系，例②表示两个分句的转折关系。

In above examples, 因为…所以… and 虽然…可是… both connect two clauses. In example ① 因为…所以… expresses the cause-effect relation between the two clauses, and in example ② 虽然…可是… indicates the contrary relation between the two clauses.

2.8.2 几个常用连词的用法

2.8.2 The usages of some conjunctions in common use

(1) 和

连词"和"的作用是连接类别相同或结构相近的词或短语，表示并列关系。被连接的词或短语组成一个结构，共同充当句子成分。

(1) The Usage of 和

The conjunction 和 is used to connect words or phrases of similar class or structure to make them co-ordinate. Words or phrases thus connected function as one grammatical unit in a sentence.

"和"一般只用来连接名词、代词或名词短语，不能连接分句。"和"也很少连接动词或动词短语。例如：

和 is used to connect nouns, pronouns or nominal phrases only. It is not used to connect two clauses, nor is 和 often used to join verbs or verbal phrase. For example:

①长江和黄河是中国最长的两条河。

②他和我都学习汉语。

③去年的冬天和今年的冬天这儿都下雪了。

如果有两个以上的词或短语并列的时候，"和"放在最后一个词或短语之前，前面的各项用顿号。例如：

When more than two words or phrases are connected, 和 is used only between the last two words or phrases. Between the preceding items the punctuation mark "、" is used. For example:

①我去过北京、上海和广州。

②图书馆、操场和游泳池都在学校西边。

(2) 或、或者

“或”、“或者”是表示选择的连词，说明从两项或两项以上的事物中任意选择一项。它们可以连接两个性质或结构相同或相近的词、短语。例如：

(2) The usage of 或，或者

或 and 或者 are conjunctions indicating an alternative relationship between two or more items. 或 or 或者 joins two words or phrases of the same or similar class and structure. For example:

①今年夏天，我打算去东北或西北旅行。

②你带点水果或者点心吧！

“或者”还可以连接两个分句，组成选择关系的复句。有时几个“或者”可以连用。例如：

或者 may also be used to join two clauses, forming a complex sentence involving an alternative relationship. Sometimes, 或者 can be used more than one in a sentence. For example:

①今年暑假，我或者回家乡，或者留在学校复习功课。

②你或者叫他“老王”，或者叫他“大王”都行。

(3) 还是

“还是”表示选择，主要用于疑问句。例如。

(3) The usage of 还是

The conjunction 还是 indicates an alternative relationship, and is mainly used in an interrogative question. For example:

①你去广州，还是（去）上海？

②你寄航空信，还是（寄）平信？

③你买一件，还是（买）两件？

在以上各例中，“还是”连接的是两个动宾结构。在动词相同时，后一个动词可以省略，下面的例子中，后一个动词不能省略。

In the above examples, 还是 is used to connect two verb–object constructions. When the verbs of the two constructions are the same, the second verb can be omitted. In the following examples, the second verb cannot be left out.

①你看电影，还是听音乐？

②你做练习，还是听录音？

“还是”用在陈述句里，表示对某事、某情况不能确定。例如：

还是 is used in a declarative sentence with the implication of uncertainty. Forexample:

①我不知道欢送会在上午还是在下午。

②她不知道你住在三层还是四层。

“还是”和“或者”虽然都是连词，表示选择，但用法不同。“还是”主要用于选择疑问句，“或者”一般用于陈述句，“还是”用于陈述句表示对某事、某情况不能确定。

“还是” and “或者” are both conjunctions indicating alternative. However, they have different usages. 还是 is mainly used in alternative questions, and 或者 is usually used in a declarative sentence. 还是 is used in a declarative sentence with the implication of uncertainty.

(4) 而

(4) The usage of 而

连词“而”连接两个形容词，表示两种性质或状态互相补充。例如：

The conjunction 而 joins two adjectives, which are complementary to each other in describing quality or state of things. For example:

①他的家乡是一个美丽而富饶的地方。

②这块地毯美丽而大方。

2.9 助词

2.9 Particles

2.9.1 助词是附着在词、短语或句子上面，表示某些附加意义的词。它不能单独使用，一般都读轻声。

2.9.1 Particles are words that are added to words, phrases or sentences to express some additional meanings. They cannot be used by themselves, and should be pronounced in neutral tone generally.

汉语的助词分结构助词、动态助词和语气助词三类。

Chinese particles fall into three groups: structural particles, aspect particles and modal particles.

2.9.2 结构助词

结构助词的作用是把词语连接起来，使它们成为具有某种句法结构关系的短语。如“的”是连接定语及其中心语的；“地”是连接状语及其中心语的；“得”是连接补语及其中心语的等。

2.9.2 Structural particles

Structural particles are words that connect words and make them into phrases with certain syntactic construction. e.g. 的 connects attributive modifier and its central word, and 地 connects adverbial modifier and its central word and 得 connects complement and its central word.

(1) 的

结构助词“的”是连接定语及其中心语的，是定语的标志。关于定语后的“的”的用法，见（第三章 3.3）。

(1) The usage of 的

The structural particle 的 connects the attributive modifier and its central word. It is the symbol of attributive modifier. Refer to 3.3, chapter 3 for the usages of 的 after attributive.

结构助词“的”附着在名词、代词、形容词、动词、主谓短语等后，同这些词语一起组成一个短语，叫“的”字短语，它的性质和作用相当于一个名词。例如:

When the structural particle 的 is attached to a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verb or subject-predicate phrase, they enter into what is called "a phrase with 的". Such a phrase is equivalent to a noun both in nature and function. For example:

①这本小说是中文的，那本小说是英文的。

②那本杂志是他的。

③他的衬衫是新的。

④那本词典是从图书馆借来的。

“的”字短语在句中可以充任主语或宾语。例如:

Phrases with 的 may function as subjects or objects in a sentence. For example:

①穿白衬衫的是我弟弟。

②这本《汉英词典》是王老师的。

(2) 地

结构助词“地”用在动词或形容词的前边，表示它前面的成分是修饰动词或形容词的状语。双音节的形容词和前有程度副词修饰的单音节形容词作状语时，一般后面都要用“地”。例如：

(2) The usage of 地

地 is a structural particle which is used before a verb or an adjective to show that what precedes it is an adverbial modifier modifying the verb or the adjective. As a rule, a disyllabic adjective or a monosyllabic adjective with an adverb of degree before it calls for the particle 地, when it functions as an adverbial modifiers. For example:

①他激动地说：“这儿的风景多美啊！”

②我们愉快地生活在一起。

③他很准地投进了一个球。

(3) 得

结构助词“得”在谓语动词或形容词后面，表示它后面的成分是动词或形容词的补语。表示程度或可能的补语，前面一般都需用“得”。例如：

(3) The usage of 得

The structural particle 得 is used after a predicate verb or an adjective to show that the following element is a complement to the verb or the adjective. Complement of degree or potential complement are usually preceded by 得. For example:

①他写汉字写得很好。

②她汉语说得跟中国人一样流利。

③这个教室坐得下四十个人。

2.9.3 语气助词

语气助词一般附在句末，表示疑问、祈使、感叹、陈述等语气，有时也放在句中停顿的地方，一般都读轻声。常用的语气助词如：

2.9.3 Modal particles

Modal particles are attached to a sentence to show various moods such as interrogativel imperative, exclamative or declarative. Sometimes, they are inserted where there is a pause in the sentence and are pronouced with a light intonation. Common modal particles are as follows.

吗　呢　吧　的　了　啊

(1) 吗

"吗"是表示疑问的语气助词。它用在句子的末尾，构成疑问句。这种疑问句我们叫是非问句。例如：

(1) The usage of 吗

The modal particle 吗 is used at the end of a sentence to make interrogative question. Such question is called yes-no question. For example:

①你学习中文吗？

②你看见李老师了吗？

③明天我们去参观吗？

(2) 呢

语气助词"呢"用在用疑问代词提问的问句、正反问句末。"呢"用在用"还是"提问的问句的句尾，使全句的语气缓和。例如：

(2) The usage of 呢

The modal particle 呢 can be added at the end of a question with an interrogative pronoun, an affirmative-negative question or an alternative question to soften the tone. For example:

①我们几点去医院看玛丽呢？

②你懂不懂今天讲的语法呢？

③你今年回国，还是明年回国呢？

语气助词"呢"用在陈述句的末尾时，表示动作正在进行。句中常有"在"、"正"、"正在"副词配合。例如：

When placed after a declarative sentence, the modal particle 呢 means that the action is just going on. It is often used in conjunction with adverbs like 在，正在，正。For example:

①代表团正参观呢！

②他们在表演节目呢！

③玛丽正在听音乐呢！

语气助词"呢"用在陈述句的末尾，还表示确认事实，使对方信服。有时还带有夸张的语气。例如：

In such sentences, 呢 also indicates confirmation or conviction, sometimes even conveying a sense of exaggeration. For example:

①她虽然年纪大了，但是还可以做些工作呢!

②还早呢，你再玩会儿吧。

在一定的语言环境里，在代词、名词或名词性短语等后面直接加上语气助词“呢”，也可以构成省略式疑问句。这种句子所问的内容，要由上下文来决定。例如：

Elliptical questions may be formed by adding modal particle 呢 to a pronoun, noun or nominal phrase. The meaning of this type of question is determined mainly by the context. For example:

①你忙吗?

—我很忙，你呢?（你忙吗?）

②你今天有空儿吗?

—我没空儿。

明天呢?（明天有空吗?）

③北京的秋天天高气爽，天津的秋天呢?

如果没有上下文，这种句子总是问地点的。例如：

When there is no context, elliptical questions of this type are usually to ask where someone or something is. For example:

①约翰呢?（约翰在哪儿?）

②你妹妹呢?（你妹妹在哪儿?）

(3) 吧

(3) The usage of 吧

语气助词“吧”可以用在表示请求、劝告、命令、商量或同意的句子里，使整个句子的语气比较缓和。例如：

When used at the end of a sentence expressing request, advice, command, consultation or consent or agreement, the modal particle 吧 softens the tone of the sentence. For example:

①你休息吧!

②我买这件衬衫吧!

③你给大家唱个歌吧!

④你来我家吧? —好吧!

"吧"在疑问句的末尾时，表示带揣测语气的提问。例如：

When used at the end of an interrogative sentence, 吧 indicates supposition. For example:

①这本书是你翻译的吧？

②你在中国习惯了吧？

③这个汉字不对吧？

④广州离北京很远吧？

(4) 的

(4) The usage of 的

"的"用在句末是语气助词，表示肯定的语气。例如：

的 at the end of a sentence is a modal particle expressing affirmation. For example:

①放心吧，他的病会好的。

②我的朋友明天一定会来的。

③我们会来接你去看电影的。

(5) 啊

(5) The usage of 啊

语气助词"啊"在陈述句末尾，表示肯定、赞同、催促和嘱咐等语气，读轻声。例如：

The modal particle 啊 can be used at the end of a statement to indicate a tone of certainty, affirmation, urging or exhortation, etc. and is pronounced in the neutral tone. For example:

①是啊，他昨天已经走了。

②好啊，我们一起去打球！

③快跑啊，马上就要开车啦！

④路上你一定要小心啊！

(6) 了

(6) The usage of 了

"了"用在句子末尾，表示事态发生变化。例如：

The modal particle 了 can be used at the end of a sentence to indicate a change in the state of things. For example:

①春天了。

②我能看中国画报了。

③晚上我有事，不能去参加晚会了。

④他已经来中国了。

“了”还可以用在句子末尾，表示催促、劝告或提醒。例如：

了 can also be used at the end of a sentence to express urging, advice or reminding. For example:

①快走吧，我们不能再等了。

②别喊了，大家正在休息呢！

③上课了，快进教室去吧。

2.9.4 动态助词

2.9.4 Aspect particles

动态助词表示动词的某种语法意义，主要有：“了”、“着”、“过”。

Aspect particles indicate the grammatical functions of verbs. They are mainly 了，着，过.

(1) 了

(1) The usage of 了

“了”在动词后面是动态助词，表示动作已经完成。例如：

When appearing after a verb, 了 is an aspect particle. It indicates the completion of an action. For example:

①我买了几本中文小说。

②玛丽唱了一首中国江南民歌。

③他喝了一杯咖啡。

“了”在句子末尾是语气助词，强调整个句子所表达的某件事或某种情况已经发生或变化。例如：

When appearing at the end of a sentence, 了 is a modal particle. It is used to modify the whole sentence to indicate that the event referred to has already taken place or changed. For example:

①我能看中文小说了。

②玛丽来北京了。

③现在已经是春天了。

如果在带语气助词“了”肯定某事已发生的句子里，又要特别强调动作已完成，可以在动词后再加上动态助词“了”。例如：

In a sentence where the modal particle 了 at the end of the sentence has already indicated that the event has been completed, another 了 can be added after the verb to show emphsis. For example:

①我已经喝了咖啡了。

②我去了他家了。

如果不强调动作的完成或某事已经发生，只是一般地叙述过去某时的情景，常常不用“了”。例如：

了 is generally not used in simple statement in the past tense, i.e. when there is no need to stress completion or past. For example:

①以前她常常来看我。

②去年我在北京住。

③昨天上午我去看朋友，下午去看电影。

动词后有动态助词“了”又有宾语的句子，必须具备下面的条件之一，才能构成完整的句子。

When a verb takes after it both the aspect particle 了 and an object, the sentence remains an incomplete unless it possesses one of the following requirements.

1) 宾语中心词前有数量词或其他定语。例如：

1) The object is preceded by a numeral-measure word or other attributive modifier. For example:

①我写了三封信。

②我买了很多中文小说。

③代表团参观了我们的图书馆。

2) 如果宾语很简单，后面必须另有动词或分句。例如：

2) The object must be followed by another verb or a clause if it is a simple one. For example:

①我们参观了展览会就回学校了。

②明天我们吃了早饭就去长城。

3) 句尾有语气助词"了"时，宾语中心词可以是简单的。例如：

3) The object is a simple one with the modal particle 了 at the end of the sentence. For example:

①我给家里写了信了。

②我看了电影了。

4) 动词前有比较复杂的状语，宾语中心词也可以是简单的。例如：

4) The object be a simple one with the verb preceded by a complicated adverbial modifier. For example:

①昨天她跟我们一起去听了音乐会。

②我们在长城互相照了相。

带动态助词"了"的句子的否定式，是在动词前用"没(有)"，句尾不再用"了"。例如：

The negative form of a sentence with the aspect particle 了 is made by putting the adverb 没 (没有) in front of the verb and removing 了 from the end of the sentence. For example:

①我没有看今天的报。

②昨天的电影我没看，你看了没有？

表示动作是否完成的正反疑问式常用"……了没有"。例如：

An affirmative-negative sentence usually uses the …了没有 pattern to ask whether a thing has happened. For example:

①电影开始了没有？

②你们访问了那位作家没有？

也可以并列动词的肯定、否定形式（……没……）。例如：

And this kind of sentences also ask question by juxtaposing the affirmative and negative forms (verb + 没 + verb). For example:

①你写没写信？

②他来没来学校？

(2) 着

动态助词"着"加在动词后，表示动作或状态的持续。"着"与动词之间不能插入任何成分。例如：

(2) The usage of 着

When used after a verb, the aspect particle 着 indicates the continuation of action. No word can be inserted between the verb and 着. for example:

①桌子上放着书、词典、杂志和画报。

②屋子的窗户开着，门关着。

③我妹妹穿着一件很漂亮的毛衣。

④墙上挂着几张画儿。

否定形式是"没（有）…着"。例如：

The negative form of this sentence pattern is 没（有）…着。For example:

墙上没（有）挂着画儿，只挂着地图。

正在进行中的动作往往也是持续的，所以动态助词"着"也可以和表示动作进行的"正在""在""正"等副词连用。例如：

An action in progress is usually a continuous action. For this reason 着 often goes with adverbs like 正在，在 or 正. For example:

①我们正在听着录音呢，他走进来了。

②外边正下着雨呢，你再等一会儿吧。

动词带动态助词"着"也可以表示行为的方式。例如：

Verbs with the aspect particle 着 usually express the manner of an action. For example:

①他们坐着看报。

②很多人站着看球赛。

③他们带着孩子去公园玩了。

④她拿着花去医院看朋友。

(3) 过

动态助词"过"放在动词后，说明某种动作发生在过去，或者表示过去有过的经历。例如：

(3) The usage of 过

Used after a verb, the aspect particle 过 indicates that the action took place in the past or that there has been such an experience. For example:

①我们去过日本。

②我中学学过英语。

③玛丽听过中国民歌。

否定形式是在动词前面加"没(有)"，例如：

Negation is achieved by adding 没(有) before the verb. For example:

①我们没有去过日本。

②这本小说他没看过。

③以前她没来过我家，这是第一次。

正反疑问式是"…过…没有"。例如：

The affirmative-negative form with 过 is "…过…没有". For example:

①你以前学过汉语没有？

②你看过中国电影没有？

③昨天你去过图书馆没有？

2.10 叹词和象声词

2.10 Interjections and Onomatopoeias

2.10.1 叹词

2.10.1 Interjections

叹词也叫感叹词。是表示感叹或呼喊、答应的声音的词。常用的叹词有：

An interjection is an exclamation, a crying out or a response. Interjections in common use are as follows.

啊 啊呀 嘿 唉 哎呀 哼 呸

嘘 哈 哈哈 嘻 喂 嗨 喔

叹词在句中一般都和别的成分隔开。一般出现在句子的前头，后面用逗号或叹号。有时，叹词也可出现在句中或句尾。例如:

Interjections are usually separated from other elements of a sentence and occur at the beginning of a sentence, and comma or exclamation mark is often used after them. Somtimes, interjections can be placed in the middle or at the end of the sentence. For example:

①唉，你去哪儿?
②这些年轻人，哎呀！真有意思。
③你呀，哼!

叹词可以表示惊讶赞美、悲伤痛苦、愤怒斥责、欢乐愉快等强烈感情。例如:

Interjections may also express strong emotions, such as surprise, admiration, sorrow, indignation or delight. For example:

①啊呀，这还了得！(惊讶)
②唉，我的眼不行了！(悲伤)
③呸，给我走开！(愤怒)
④哈哈，我们赢了！(愉快)

2.10.2 象声词

2.10.2 Onomatopoeias

摹拟事物或动作声音的词叫象声词。例如:

An onomatopoeic word is one which imitates the sound of a thing or an action. For example:

哗哗　刷刷　轰隆　乒乓　咚咚
扑通　噼里叭啦　劈劈拍拍

象声词可以作状语，作状语时一般要用助词“地”，和数量词一起作状语，后面可以不用“地”。例如:

Onomatopoeia can be used as an adverbial modifier. When it is used as an adverbial modifier, the particle 地 should be used. However, when an onomatopoeia works together with a numeral-measure word, the particle 地 is not necessary. For example:

①水哗哗地流着。

②老人哈哈地大笑了起来。

③他扑通一声跳进了水里。

象声词可以作定语，作名词的定语时要用助词“的”，但在数量词前一般不用“的”。例如：

Onomatopoeia can be used as an attributive modifier. When it serves as a attributive modifier of a noun, the particle 的 should be used. But 的 is generally unnecessary when an onomatopoeia precedes a numeral–measure word. For example:

①呼呼的北风刮了一夜。

②西边响起了隆隆的炮声。

③他拿起一根火柴，“嚓”一声划着了。

象声词可以作补语。例如：

Onomatopoeia can be used as complememt. For example:

①家里的东西被他砸得稀里哗啦的。

②火车经过这里时，窗户都被震得哗啦哗啦的。

象声词可以独立在句子外边。例如：

Onomatopoeia can be separated from the sentence. For example:

①轰隆轰隆，外边打雷了。

②突突突，一辆摩托车开过来了。

第三章
句子成分

Chapter Three
Elements of Sentence

3.1 主语和谓语

3.1.1 汉语的句子一般可分为主语和谓语两大部分。

句子中表示所陈述的是"谁"或"什么"的部分是主语部分。陈述主语部分，说明它"怎么样"或"是什么"的部分是谓语。主语部分的主要成分常常由名词或代词充任，谓语部分的主要成分常常由动词或形容词充任。汉语的句子一般是主语部分在前，谓语部分在后。例如:

3.1 Subject and Predicate

3.1.1 A Chinese sentence is made up of two parts: the subject and the predicate.

The subject in a Chinese sentence is the topic talked about and the predicate tells what is said about it .The main element of the subject is usually a noun or a pronoun and the predicate a verb or an adjective.The usual word-order in Chinese sentences is subject-predicate. For example:

这里的青年都喜欢看电影。

主语部分　　谓语部分

3.1.2 主语的构成

汉语中，主语多由名词、代词来担任，除副词外，其他实词和各种词组也可以作主语。

3.1.2 The making up of subjects

Subject is mainly made up of nouns or pronouns. Except adverbs, other notional words or phrases can also be used as a subject.

(1) 名词或代词

(1) Nouns or pronouns used as subject:

①太阳出来了。

②他最喜欢听音乐。

③这是画报，那是杂志。

④这本词典是新的。

(2) 数词或数量短语

(2) Numerals or numeral-measure phrases

数词或数量短语在表示数量判断的句子里，或是用来指称前面已经出现过的事物时可以作主语。例如：

When numerals or numeral-measure phrases in a sentence denoting number-judgement, or things that has appeared earlier, they can be used as a subject. For example:

①一米是三市尺。

②一年三百六十五天。

③我有两本词典，一本是汉语词典，一本是英语词典。

(3) 动词（短语）和形容词（短语）

(3) Verbs (or verbal phrases) or adjective (or adjective phrases) used as subjects.

动词、形容词作主语有一定的条件：谓语必须是形容词，或者是“是、进行、开始、给予、象征、表示”之类的动词。例如：

When verbs or adjectives are used as subjects, the predicate must be adjectives or such verbs as 是,进行,使,开始,给予,象征,表示.For example:

①虚心使人进步，骄傲使人落后。

②游泳是一种很好的运动。

③讨论开始了。

④坚持下去就是胜利。

⑤多听、多说、多写、多念，对提高汉语水平很有好处。

(4) 主谓短语

(4) Subject-predicate phrases used as subject. For example:

①你明白我的意思就好了。

②性格直爽是她的长处。

③我明天不休息没关系。

(5)“的”字结构

(5) The 的 structure used as subject. For example:

①你说的正是我想的。

②买的不如卖的精。

在对话中，主语常常省略，例如:

In dialogues, the subjects are often omitted. For example:

A: 你什么时候来北京的?

B: (我) 去年来北京的。

3.1.3 谓语的构成

3.1.3 The making up of predicates

作谓语的主要是动词、形容词和一部分代词、名词，各种短语也可以作谓语。例如:

Predicates are mainly made up by verbs, adjectives or some pronouns, nouns. All kinds of phrases also can be used as predicates.For example:

①你们来了。(动词)

②天气晴朗了。(形容词)

③明天新年。(名词)

④她怎么啦? (代词)

⑤他二十一岁了。(数量词)

⑥明天我们考试。(短语)

⑦他身体好。(短语)

如果语言环境清楚，谓语也可以省略。例如：

If contexts are clear, predicates can also be omitted. For example:

A：你好吗？

B：我很好，你呢？

3.2 宾语

3.2 Object

3.2.1 宾语　句子中受动词支配，表示动作涉及的是"谁""什么"或"何处"的成分是宾语。在汉语中，宾语一般都放在谓语动词后面。

3.2.1 The sentence element that is governed by a verb and denotes a person, thing or place that receives the action of verb is called an object. In Chinese sentences, an object is usually placed after a verb.

3.2.2 宾语的构成

宾语和主语一样，多由名词、代词来担任，除副词外，其他实词和各种短语也能作宾语。

3.2.2 The making up of objects

An object, like a subject, is usually made up by a noun or pronoun. Except adverbs, other notional words or phrases can also be used as objects.

(1) 名词（短语）或代词

(1) Nouns (or nominal phrase) or pronouns used as object. For example:

①我正在看中文小说。

②你在做什么？

③我认识他。

④王芳正在唱江南民歌。

(2) 数词或数量词

(2) Numerals or numeral–measure words used as objects. For example:

①二加二等于四。

②他买了许多电影票，给我留了两张。

③他的电话号码是*573564*。

④我那辆旧汽车卖了八百多元。

(3)“的”字结构　“的”字结构的作用相当于一个名词，所以也常作宾语。例如：

(3) The 的 structure usually functions as a noun. It can also be used as an object. For example:

①这本汉英词典是我朋友的。

②衬衣的样式很多，您要什么样的？

③我们图书馆的书很多，有中文的，也有外文的。

(4) 动词（短语）或形容词（短语）

(4) Verbs (or verbial phrases) or adjectives (or adjective phrases) used as object.

动词、形容词指称一种行为、性状，或表示一种抽象事物时，也可以作宾语。动词、形容词作宾语，谓语一般是表示心理活动或使令意义的动词，如“喜欢、表示、认为、感觉、知道、要求、禁止”等；或者是表示学习、过程、处理的动词，如“研究、开始、进行、继续、结束、给予”等。例如。

A verb or adjective which denotes an action or state, and indicates an abstract thing can be used as an object. When verbs or adjectives are used as objects, the predicate verbs are usually those that indicate psychological activities or imperatives, such as 喜欢,表示,认为,感觉,知道,要求,禁止. or verbs indicating studying, processing, handling, e.g. 研究,开始,进行,继续,结束,给予.etc. For example:

①他特别喜欢游泳，不喜欢跳舞。

②她表示同意我们的意见。

③这个问题我们已经进行了多次研究。

④禁止吸烟！

⑤我希望你不要走。

⑥这几本词典都是我从中国买来的。

(5) 介词短语

(5) Prepositional phrases used as object.

介词短语作宾语时都是在“是”字句里，作“是”的宾语，最常见的只有“在……”、“为……”、“为了……”、“由于……”。例如：

Prepositional phrases being used as object generally happens in the 是 sentence and is used as the object of 是. Common phrases are 在…，为…，为了…，由于…. For example:

①我认识王芳，是在1975年秋天。

②我这次来中国，不是为了旅游，而是为了学习。

③他没来上课是由于身体不好。

宾语和主语、谓语一样，在对话里也可以省略。例如：

The objects, like subjects and predicates, can be omitted in dialogues. For example:

A、你认识约翰吗？

B、〔 〕认识〔 〕。

3.3 定语

3.3 Attribute

3.3.1 定语

3.3.1 The attribute.

句子中修饰或限制名词、名词性短语，表示人或事物的性状、数量、所属等的成分是定语。被修饰或限制的名词或名词性短语叫“中心语”。定语一般都放在中心语前头。定语和中心语之间一般都可以加结构助词“的”。

The sentence element that modifies a noun or nominal phrase and expresses the quality, state, quantity or category of the person or thing modified is called an attribute. The noun or noun phrase modified by the attribute is called "the headword". In Chinese an attribute as a rule is placed before the word which it modifies. Between an attribute and its head word the structural particle 的 is often used.

3.3.2 定语的构成

3.3.2 The making up of Attributes

定语多由名词、代词、形容词、动词、数量词和各种短语来充当，少数副词也可以作定语。

Attributes are usually nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, numeral-measure words. or various phrases. Sometimes, a few adverbs can also serve as attributes.

(1) 名词作定语。

名词作定语表示领属关系，或时间、处所名词作定语时，后面一般要用“的”例如：

(1) Noun as attributive

When a noun indicating possession or a noun indicating time or locality is used as an attributive, it usually takes 的 after it .For example:

①玛丽的家在五楼二层。

②这是今天晚上七点半的京剧票。

③东边的大楼是办公楼。

如果名词定语是说明中心语性质的，一般不用“的”。例如：

If the nominal attributive denotes nature of the headword, 的 is not used, For example.

①他是日本人，她是英国人。

②我买了一本世界地图。

(2) 代词作定语：

人称代词作定语表示领属关系时，后面一般要用“的”。例如：

(2) Pronouns used as attributive

When a personal pronoun is used as attributive indicating possession, it usually takes 的 after it. For example:

①你们的中国老师叫什么名字？

②他的办公室在楼上。

③大家的事情大家干。

如果中心语是亲属称谓或所属单位时，一般不用的。例如：

But when the headword is one denoting the appelation relationship or organization, 的 is usually not necessary. For example:

①我爸爸是工程师，妈妈是教师。

②你姐姐在哪个医院工作？

③他们班有十五个同学。

指示代词和量词作定语不用“的”例如：

的 is not used when the attribute is a demonstrative pronoun or measure word.

①这本汉英词典是我刚从书店买来的。

②那张画画得真好！

(3) 数词、数量词作定语:

(3) The numeral or numeral-measure word as attributive

数词作定语一般要用“的”。例如:

When a numeral is used as attribute, it usually takes 的 after it, but sometimes it can be omitted. For example:

①我们班百分之四十的学生是女生。

②三的二倍是六。

数量词作定语一般不用“的”。例如:

When a numeral-measure word is used as an attribute, 的 is usually not used. For example:

①我要买一件大衣。

②我们一起去拍一张照片吧!

(4) 形容词作定语:

(4) The adjective as attribute

双音节形容词作定语一般要用“的”，但有时可以省略。例如:

When used as attribute, a disyllabic adjective usually takes 的, but sometimes it can be omitted. For example:

①她是一位年轻的大夫。

②杭州是一座美丽的城市。

③他有一个幸福(的)家庭。

单音节形容词作定语一般不用“的”。例如:

的 is not used when a monosyllabic adjective is used as attribute. For example:

①李云和张芳是好朋友。

②你别着急，这是一件小事。

③请给我一杯热咖啡。

形容词短语作定语，后面一般要用“的”。例如:

When used as attribute, an adjective phrase usually takes 的. For example:

①这是一座非常古老的城市。

②她是一个十分可爱的小姑娘。

形容词“多”“少”作定语时，前面一般要加“很”“不”，后面可以不用“的”。例如:

The adjective 多 or 少, when used as attribute, is normally preceded by an adverb 很 or 不 and 的 is not used after it .For example:

①很多外国朋友都去过长城。

②这篇文章不少（的）人都读过。

③在夏天，好多人都去海边游泳。

(5) 动词作定语:

(5) Verb as attribute

动词作定语，后面一般要用“的”。例如:

When used as attribute, a verb usually takes 的 after it. For example:

①早上锻炼的人可多呢!

②休息的时候，大家都去喝茶了。

但是，双音节动词表示修饰关系的，一般不用“的”。例如:

But with a disyllabic verb expressing modification, 的 usually is not used. For example:

①他的考试成绩很不错。

②庆祝晚会在礼堂举行。

(6) 动词短语作定语:

(6) Verbal phrase as attribute

动词短语作定语，后面要用“的”。例如:

When used as attribute, a verbal phrase takes 的 after it. For example:

①这是送她的生日礼物。

②夏天去海边的人真多。

③从那边走过来的人就是李大夫。

(7) 主谓短语作定语:

(7) Subject-predicate phrase as attribute

主谓短语作定语，后面要用“的”。例如:

When used as attribute, a subject-predicate phrase usually takes 的 after it. For example:

①这是玛丽画的画。

②你看看我借的这本小说吧!

③我休息的时候，他来了。

3.3.3 多重定语的次序

如果名词前边不止一个定语，表领属关系的名词或代词总是放在最前边，表修饰关系的形容词或名词最靠近中心语。指示代词要放在数量词的前边。例如

3.3.3 The order of multiple attributes is as follows:

If the noun has more than one attribute, the noun or pronoun attribute of possession always comes first and the adjective or noun showing modification is placed before the headword, the demonstrative pronoun precedes the numeral-measure word. For example:

那两本词典

她的那两本词典

她的那两本汉英词典

她的那两本新汉英词典

3.4 状语

3.4 Adverbial

3.4.1 状语　句子中主要修饰动词、形容词，表示动作进行的时间、处所、方式、范围以及性质、状态的程度等的成分是状语。

3.4.1 The sentence element that modifies a verb or an adjective by expressing its time, place, manner, scope, quality, state or degree is called an adverbial.

3.4.2 状语的构成

状语多由副词、形容词、介词短语和某些表示时间、处所的名词充当。一般来说，双音节的形容词和带程度副词的单音节形容词作状语时，后面都要用结构助词“地”。

3.4.2 The making up of adverbials

Adverbials are usually adverbs, adjectives, prepositional phrases, or some nouns denoting time or place. As a rule, a disyllabic adjective or a monosyllabic adjective with an adverb of degree before it calls for the use of the structural particle 地.

(1) 副词作状语，例如:

(1) Adverb as adverbial

①我身体很好。

②他们刚去电影院。

③我们都学习汉语。

④张老师非常热情。

(2) 形容词作状语

(2) Adjective as adverbial

单音节形容词作状语，一般不用“地”。例如:

When a monosyllabic adjective is used as adverbial, 地 is not used. For example:

①你快走吧，电影马上就要开始了。

②我早来了，在等着你呢!

③学习外语应该多听多说多练习。

双音节形容词作状语，一般要用“地”。例如:

地 is usually with a disyllabic adjective acting as an adverbial. For example:

①中国老师热情地辅导我们学习中文。

②我们愉快地来到了北京。

③他们努力（地）学习，积极（地）锻炼身体。

单音节或双音节形容词前又带程度副词时，要用“地”。例如:

A disyllabic adjective or a monosyllabic adjective with an adverb of degree before it calls for the use of 地. For example:

①我们很快地翻译完了这篇文章。

②他十分热情地握着我的手说:“见到你非常高兴”。

③她总是非常认真地帮助我。

(3) 介词短语作状语，例如:

(3) Prepositional phrase as adverbial. For example:

①她在医院工作，不在学校工作。

②我从去年九月开始学习汉语。

③往南走，就是商场了。

④让我们为两国人民的友谊干杯!

(4) 时间词和处所词作状语，例如:

(4) Time noun and place noun as adverbial. For example:

①我们明天去长城游览。

②他晚上请我们吃饭。

③我们七点半去看电影，好吗?

④外边冷，我们里边坐吧!

汉语的状语一般在动词或形容词前面。表示时间、处所、范围的状语，有时可以在主语前面。例如:

In Chinese, adverbials normally occur before the verbs or adjectives they modify. Adverbials expressing time, place or scope are sometimes placed before the subjects of a sentence. For example:

①昨天，他来到了北京。

②十二点半，我们去飞机场接她。

③在北京市，他是有名的医生了。

3.4.3 状语的种类

3.4.3 Classification of adverbials

根据状语的功能，我们可以把它分成两大类：限制性状语和描写性状语。限制性状语又可以分以下若干类。

According to the functions, adverbial can be classified into two types: The restrictive adverbial and the modifying adverbial. The restrictive adverbial can be classified into the following types:

(1) 时间状语

(1) Time adverbial

时间状语表示动作发生在什么时候、状况出现在什么时候。它经常由副词、时间名词、介词短语或其他表示时间的词语充当。副词一般在动词或形容词前，时间状语可以在动词或形容词前面，也可以在主语前面。例如:

An adverbial of time expresses the time at which an action takes place or a state of things comes into existence. It may be an adverb, a noun denoting time, a time-phrase or a prepositional phrase. While an adverbial is generally placed before the verb or adjective it modifies, an adverbial of time may occur either before a verb or an adjective, or before the subject of the sentence. For example:

①今年我要毕业回国了。

②他已经从上海回北京了。

③我从明天起骑车去学院。

(2) 处所状语

处所状语说明动作在哪里发生，或情况在什么地方出现。它经常由处所词语和介词短语充任。例如:

(2) Adverbial of place

An adverbial of place shows where an action takes place. It is often a noun denoting place or a prepositional phrase. For example:

①他在邮局寄信呢!

②我们沿着湖边散步。

③汽车朝南开去了。

(3) 程度状语

程度状语说明性质达到了什么程度。它经常由副词充当。被修饰的一般是形容词或表示心理活动的动词。例如:

(3) Degree adverbial

An adverbial of degree indicates the degree that a quality or state of things has attained. It is usually an adverb and modifies an adjective or a verb of psychological activity. For example:

①那位售票员很热情。

②见到你，我感到特别高兴。

③我最喜欢听民歌。

(4) 方式状语

方式状语说明动作怎样进行。它经常由形容词或副词充当。例如:

(4) Adverbials of manner

An adverbial of manner shows the way in which an action is carried out. It is usually an adverb or an adjective. For example:

①星期天我们一起去游泳了。

②我们经常互相学习，互相帮助。

(5) 对象状语

对象状语是表示动作的对象或动作的施动者。它经常由“给”“对”“由”等介词组成的介词短语充当。例如:

(5) Adverbial of object

An adverbial of object tells more about the object of an action or the doer of an action. It is usually a prepositional phrase with prepositions such as 给，对，由. For example:

①他给我买了一本汉英词典。

②我对他的回答很满意。

③代表团由五人组成。

(6) 目的状语

目的状语说明动作的目的。它由“为”“为了”这样的介词组成的介词短语充当。例如:

(6) Adverbial of purpose

An adverbial of purpose shows the purpose of an action. It is usually a prepositional phrase with prepositions. such as 为，为了. For example:

①为辅导我们汉语，老师经常早来晚走。

②让我们为两国人民的友谊，干杯!

③为了学习汉语，我来到了北京。

3.5 补语

3.5 Complement

3.5.1 补语　补语是附加在动词或形容词后面，补充说明动作进行的情况、结果、数量或者性状的程度的成分。补语经常由形容词、副词、动词或其他短语充当。

3.5.1 Complement is a supplementary or explanatory element which is attached to a verb or an adjective. It indicates how the action is going on, what its result is, how many times or how long it is done, or what degree or extent a quality or state of things reaches. It is usually an adjective, an adverb, a verb or a phrase.

3.5.2 补语的分类

3.5.2 Classification of complements

(1) 程度补语

(1) Degree complement

说明动作或事物性质所达到的程度的补语叫程度补语。动词和程度补语之间要用结构助词"得"来连接。程度补语一般由形容词、副词和其他短语充当。例如:

Complements that indicate the degree or extent of an action or a thing is called complement of degree. Complement is usually placed after verb. The structural particle 得 is used to connect the verb and its complement of degree. Degree complement is usually made of adjectives, adverbs or other phrases, For example:

①他翻译得很好。
②她写汉字写得跟中国人一样快。
③听到这个好消息,我们高兴得跳呀、唱呀。
④孩子们高兴得跳了起来。
⑤他讲得大家都笑起来了。
⑥她画得好极了。

例①"好"是形容词,例②"跟中国人一样快"是形容词短语,例③"跳""唱"是动词,例④"跳了起来"是动词短语,例⑤"大家都笑起来了"是主谓结构,例⑥"极"是副词,它们分别充当这些句子的程度补语。

In the above exampes: ① 好 is an adjective, ② 跟中国人一样快 is an adjective phrase, ③跳, 唱 are verbs, ④跳了起来 is a verbal phrase, ⑤大家都笑起来了 is a subject-predicate phrase, ⑥ 极 is an adverb. They are respectively used as the degree complements in these sentences.

带程度补语的句子,动词如果有宾语,要在重复动词后,加"得"和补语。例如:

When it is attached to a V-O phrase, the degree complement comes after the repeated verb. For example:

①玛丽唱歌唱得很好。
②约翰说汉语说得很流利。

这种句子的第一个动词也可以省略。我们可以说成:

In the above sentences, the first verb can be omitted. We can say:

①玛丽歌唱得很好。

②约翰汉语说得很流利。

程度补语的否定形式是对充当补语的形容词进行否定。例如:

Only adjectives which serve as the degree complement of a verb can be negated. For example:

①他翻译得不对。

②她睡得不早。

带程度补语的句子的正反疑问式是并列补语的肯定形式和否定形式。例如:

The affirmative-negative form of this type of sentence is made by juxtaposing *the affirmative and negative* forms of the degree complement. For example:

①玛丽唱得好不好?

②昨天你睡得晚不晚?

为了强调宾语或当宾语比较复杂时, 可以将宾语提到动词前边或主语的前边。在带程度补语的句子中, 如果有前置宾语就不需要重复动词了。例如:

The object may be placed before the verb, or even before the subject of the sentence to make it emphatic and conspicuous or when the object is long and involved. When a sentence containing a complement of degree has its object placed before the verb or the subject, it will not be necessary to repeat the verb. For example:

①他车开得很好。

②那篇文章他翻译得很好。

(2) 结果补语:

(2) Complement of result

1) 补充说明动作进行的结果怎么样叫结果补语。结果补语经常由动词或形容词充当。例如:

1) A complement of result tells the result of an action. It is usually a verb or an adjective. For example:

①我写完那篇文章了。

②他学会开汽车了。

③黑板上的字我看清楚了。

结果补语跟动词结合得很紧，中间不能插入其他成分。动态助词"了"或宾语必须放在结果补语的后边。例如:

A verb and its resultative complement are closely linked to each other and do not allow the insertion of another element between them. The aspect particle 了 and the object may be placed after the complement. For example:

①我看完了那本小说了。

②她学会了骑自行车了。

动词带结果补语，这个动作一般是已经完成的，所以否定式一般用"没（有）"。例如:

A verb followed by a resultative complement normally indicates that the action has concluded. Therefore, 没有 is used to make this type of structure negative. For example:

①我今天没有看见他。

②他还没有学会开汽车。

在条件句中，可用"不"来否定。例如:

不 can be also used in a conditional clause.For example:

①我不看完这本小说就不去玩儿。

②你不写清楚，我们怎么看?

这种句子的正反疑问式用"……没有"。例如:

The affirmative-negative sentence is made possible by "……没有". For example:

①那篇文章你看完了没有?

②你学会骑车没有?

2) 几种常用的结果补语:

(2) Some verbs and adjectives commonly used as complement of result.

A、好

A. The usage of 好

形容词"好"作结果补语表示动作达到完善的地步。例如:

The adjective 好 may serve as a resultative complement to indicates the desired state of an action. For example:

①我们一定要学好汉语。

②请大家坐好，汽车马上就要开了。

B、到、在、往

B. The usages of 到，在 and 往

"到"、"在"、"往"是动词，也常作结果补语。"到"作结果补语，表示动作达到某一点或持续到某一时间。例如:

When 到 functions as a resultative complement, it indicates the continuation of an action up to a certain point of time. For example:

①玛丽去旅行了，昨天她回到了北京。

②昨天晚上我看书看到十二点。

结果补语"到"还可以表示动作达到了目的。例如:

The resultative complement 到 also indicates the successful conclusion of an action. For example:

①我接到朋友的信，就给他回了信。

②我买到了《汉英词典》了。

"在"作结果补语说明人或事物通过某一动作以后而存在于某处。"在"的后面必须有表示处所的词语作动词的宾语。例如:

在 as a resultative complement denotes the position of a person or thing as a result of an action. 在 must be followed by a word of locality which functions as the object of the verb. For example:

①昨天看电影的时候，我坐在玛丽的旁边。

②你们把生词抄在本子上。

"住"作结果补语表示通过动作使某事物或人牢固地停留在一定的位置上。动词"记"常带结果补语"住","记住"的意思就是使某件事牢固地留在记忆里。例如:

The resultative complement 住 often indicates that something or somebody is fixed in a certain position as a result of a previous action. The verb 记 often goes with the resultative complement 住，记住 means "to fix something in mind". For example:

①他听见有人叫，就站住了。

②我的电话号码你记住了吗?

③学过的汉字你们全记住了没有?

C、开

C. The usage of 开

动词"开"作结果补语，表示通过动作而离开某处。例如:

The verb 开 used as a resultative complement indicating movement away from a place. For example:

①他见到汽车一来，就跑开了。

②请把这些石头搬开。

还可以表示通过动作使合拢、连接的东西分开。例如:

It may also indicate separation of parts originally linked together. For example:

①请把电灯开开。

②屋里空气不好，请把窗户打开。

D、上

D. The usage of 上

"上"作结果补语，表示动作完成后产生合拢、结合等结果。例如:

As a resultative completion, 上 is often used to indicate that the completion of an actin has brought about certain results such as coming together or being closed up. For example:

①屋里有点冷，请关上窗户。

②你不看电视，就把它关上吧。

还可以表示通过动作而使某事物存在或附着于某处。例如：

As a resultative complement, 上 also denotes that something assumes a certain position or become attached to an object as a result of an action performed on it. For example:

①下雨了，穿上我的雨衣去吧！

②请在本子上写上自己的名字。

E、见

E. The usage of 见

动词"见"作结果补语，经常用在表示感觉的动词如"听"、"看"之类的后边。"看"是用眼睛去看，看得见看不见不一定，"看见"才是确实看到了。"听"和"听见"也是如此。例如：

As a resultative complement, 见 is often placed after the verb of senses such as 听 and 看. 看 means "to look" with the eyes, but whether the thing or object is seen or not is uncertain whereas 看见 means that the object has been seen. 听 and 听见 differ from each other in the same way. For example:

①昨天在商店我看见他在买东西。

②我听见玛丽在唱歌呢！

(3) 趋向补语

(3) Directional complements

表示趋向的动词"来"、"去"和"上"、"下"、"进"、"出"、"回"、"过"、"起"等用在别的动词后面，充当他们的补语，补充说明动作的趋向，这种补语就叫趋向补语。趋向补语分简单趋向补语和复合趋向补语两种。

Directional verbs such as 来、去 and 上、下、进、出、过、起 occur after another verb and are used as complements to tell the direction of an action.They are called complements of direction. There are two types: simple directional complement and the compound directional complement.

1) 简单趋向补语:

一些动词后边常用“来”或“去”作补语。表示动作是向着说话人或所谈的事物的方向进行的就用“来”; 如果是朝着相反的方向进行, 就用“去”。例如:

1) simple directional complement

来 or 去 are often used after certain verbs to denote the direction of a movement. Modifiers of this type are known as *simple directional* Complement. If the movement preceeds foward of the speaker or the thing referred to, 来 is used. If the movement preceeds away from the speaker or the thing referred to, 去 is used. For example:

①我们的老师进来了。

②我们的老师出去了。

③玛丽上来了。

④玛丽下去了。

带简单趋向补语的动词, 如果有宾语, 宾语是表示处所的词或短语, 一定要放在动词和补语之间。这类句子的动词不能带动态助词“了”, 只能在句尾用语气助词“了”表示事情已经发生。例如:

When a verb having a simple directional complement is followed by an object which is a noun or a phrase of locality, the object should be placed between the verb and the complement. In a sentence of this kind, the verb must not be followed by the aspect particle 了, though it may end with the model particle 了, to indicate that the action referred to has already taken place. For exampe:

①我们的老师进教室来了。

②玛丽上楼来了。

③他常常到上海去。

④下课后, 他们都回宿舍去了。

如果宾语是表示一般的事物的词或短语, 也常放在动词和补语之间。例如:

When the object is a word other than a noun or phrase of locality, it is also placed between the verb and the complement. For example:

①明天游览长城，我带照相机去。

②我给约翰打电话去。

③我到邮局给他寄信去。

这种句子的宾语如果是在动作已经完成情况下，还可以放在补语之后。动态助词"了"放在动词之后或"来""去"之后。例如：

Objects of this type may also follow the complement, especially when the action referred to has already been accomplished. The aspect particle 了 may be placed after the verb or 来 and 去. For example:

①游览长城时，我带了照相机去。

②我给约翰打去电话了。

③我到邮局给他寄去了一封信。

2) 复合趋向补语：

2) Compound directional complement

动词"上、下、进、出、回、过、起"等后边加上简单趋向补语"来""去"以后，可以作别的动词的补语，表示动作的趋向，这种补语叫复合趋向补语。例如：

When followed by the simple directional complement 来 or 去 the verbs 上, 下, 进, 出, 回, 过 or 起 may function as complements to other verbs, indicating direction of movement. Complements of this type are called compound directional complements. For example:

①老师从外边走进来了。

②他从办公室里走出来了。

常用的复合趋向补语有：

Following are some commonly used compound directional complements:

	上	下	进	出	回	过	起
来	上来	下来	进来	出来	回来	过来	起来
去	上去	下去	进去	出去	回去	过去	/

"上来、上去"表示动作由低处移向高处,"下来""下去"则表示由高处移向低处;"进来、进去、出来、出去"表示动作出入于某一地点;"过来、过去"表示动作在某一地点和说话人（或所谈论的事物）所在地点之间的移动。在上述补语中,"来，去"的使用规律跟简单趋向补语是相同的。

上来，上去 show an action moveing to high place from low place.下来，下去 from high place moving to low place.进来进去出来出去 show an action come into or out from a certain place. 过来，过去 show an action moving to (or away from) the speaker.

带复合趋向补语的动词之后，如果有表示处所的宾语，宾语一定要放在"来、去"之前。例如:

来 or 去 in the compound directional complements is used in the same way as in the simple directional complement if the verb is followed by an object of locality. For example:

①他走进图书馆来了。

②汽车开过车库去了。

如果宾语是表示一般事物的词或短语，则可以放在"来、去"之前，也可以放在"来、去"之后。例如:

If the object is a word other than a noun or a phase locality or numerau phrase, it may be placed either before or after 来 or 去. For example:

①拿出你的照片来，给大家看看。

②拿出来你的照片，给大家看看。

"了"一般放在句尾。如果动词不带宾语，也可以放在动词之后。例如:

Normally 了 occurs at the end of this type of sentence, but it may also come after the verb if the verb has no object after it. For example:

①他爬上长城去了。

②汽车开过桥去了。

③玛丽从楼上跑下来了。

④我们叫玛丽下来，她就从楼上跑了下来。

3) 复合趋向补语的引申用法:

3) The extended usages of the compound directional complement.

A、起来　表示动作（情况）开始并继续。例如:

A. 起来 shows the beginning and continuation of an action or a state. For example:

①不用的书我都收起来了。

②听了这个故事，大家都笑起来了。

可以表示从分散到集中。例如:

It shows concentration from dispersion. For exampe:

①不用的书我都收起来了。

②售货员把我买的东本包了起来。

还可以表示回忆有了结果。例如:

It also shows the resutt of reminiscence. For example:

你说的那件事，我想起来了。

B、下去　表示动作的继续。例如:

B. 下去 indicates continuation of an action.For example:

①这个故事很有意思，请你说下去吧!

②我们这样干下去，很快就能干完了。

C、出来　表示某事物通过动作而出现。例如:

C. 出来 indicates that the object is made apparent through an action expressed ty the verb. For example:

①我们已经把这篇文章译出来了。

②他们把房子的式样设计出来了。

D、"过去"、"过来"　表示失去知觉或正常状态用"过去"，恢复知觉或回到原来正常的状态用"过来"。例如:

D. 过去 and 过来

过去 is used to denote that a person has lost conscnousness or normal state. 过来 is used to indicate that a person has recovered consciousness or returned to a normal state. For example:

①他一句话没说完就昏了过去。

②他被打得死了过去。

③我们已经把错句改过来了。
④我现在明白过来了，你是对的。

(4) 可能补语

1) 可能补语补充说明动作进行或实现的可能性。它是在动词和结果补语或趋向补语之间加上结构助词“得”构成的。例如:

(4) Potential complement

1) A potential complement tells the possibility of an action taking place or being realized.

It is formed with the structure particle 得 inserted between a verb and a resultative or directional complement. For example:

①这篇文章不太难，我们看得懂。
②他讲得不快，我们都听得清楚。
③那座山不高，我们爬得上去。
④现在去，吃晚饭前回得来吗?

可能补语的否定形式是用“不”代替“得”。例如:

The negative form of the potential complement is formed by using the adverb 不 in place of 得. For example:

①你说话的声音太低，我听不见。
②我们刚学了几个月汉语，还看不懂中文报。

动词带宾语时，宾语可以放在可能补语之后。如果宾语较长，一般放在句首。例如:

When a verb has an object, the object is placed after the potential complement. If the object is long or complicated, it is normally placed at the beginning of the sentence. For example:

①现在我们还看不懂中文小说。
②你借给我的那些杂志明天我看不完。

带可能补语的句子，正反疑问形式是并列动词及其可能补语的肯定形式和否定形式。例如:

The affirmative-negative form of a sentence with a potential complement is made by juxtaposing the affirmative and the negative forms of the verb and its potential complement. For example:

①这些句子一个小时你翻译得完翻译不完?

②长城最高的地方你爬得上去爬不上去?

能愿动词"能""可以"等也表示可能，但在口语中我们常常用可能补语表示可能，特别是当动词带有结果补语或趋向补语的时候；有时候为了强调，能愿动词和可能补语并用。例如：

The optative verbs 能 and 可以 also indicate possibility, but in spoken Chinese, especially in sentence with resultative or directional complements, potential complements are preferred. For emphasis a potential complement may sometimes be used together with a optative verb. For example:

①这辆汽车我自己能修得好。

②我们骑自行车去，中午可以回得来。

但是在请求对方允许时，只能用能愿动词，不能用可能补语。例如：只能说："我能进去吗?"不能说："我进得去吗?"

However, when asking for permission, only optative verbs when we say are used. "May I come in?" the correct form is "我能进去吗?", but not "我进得去吗?"

2) 可能补语与程度补语的比较：

2) The comparison of the potential and degree complements:

A、可能补语和程度补语在意义上不一样，可能补语表示可能，程度补语表示程度，这一点我们可以从语言环境上加以区分。例如：

A. They are different in meaning. The potential complement expresses possibility, whereas the complement of degree expresses degree or extent. They may be differentiated according to the context. For example:

①这个字这么复杂，他写得好吗？(可能补语)

②大家说他这个字写得好。(程度补语)

B、可能补语的前边不能带状语，程度补语的前边常常带状语。例如：

B. Unlike a potential complement, a complement of degree is often preceded by an adverbial modifier. For example:

①他的汉字写得特别漂亮。

②他说汉语说得跟中国人一样流利。

C、可能补语后边可以带宾语，程度补后边不能带宾语。例如：

C. Unlike a complement of degree, a potential complement is often followed by an object. For example:

①今晚我作得完这些练习。

②我的汽车坐得下五个人。

3) 几种常用的可能补语：

3) Some potential complements commonly used:

A、"下"作可能补语，表示有没有足够的空间来容纳。例如：

A. The Usage of 下

As a potential complement, 下 usually indicates that there is (or is not) enough room for a certain purpose. For example:

①这个教室坐得下三十个人。

②我的箱子很大，放得下这些东西。

B、"了"(liǎo)作可能补语，表示有可能进行某种动作，或性状有变化的可能。例如：

B. The Usage of 了

了(liǎo) is used as a potential complement showing that an action is likely to take place or a quality or a state of things is likely to change. For example:

①明天晚上的电影，你看得了吗？

②这些水果放在冰箱里坏不了。

有时表示"完"的意思。例如：

了 sometimes has the same meaning as 完 (finish). For example:

①你喝得了一瓶啤酒吗？

②这个任务我们两天完成不了。

C、"动"作可能补语，可以表示有力量进行某一动作，这些动作通常是可以使人或物体移动位置的。例如：

C. The Usage of 动

As a potential complement, the verb 动 expresses that one is strong or capable enough to move or cause something to move. For example:

①我们走了两个小时，有的人走不动了，只好停下来休息。

②你不用帮我了，这件行李我自己拿得动。

D、“着”(zháo)作可能补语，表示通过某动作达到某目的。例如:

D. The usage of 着 (zháo)

着 is used as a potential complement showing that one has the ability to attain an aim or purpose. For example:

①那本书图书馆里有，我借得着。

②这个谜语，你猜得着吗?

(5) 动量补语

动量补语表示动作、行为进行的次数，由动量词和数词结合起来充任。例如:

(5) Frequency complement

A frequency complement shows the frequency of an action. The action-measure word often goes with a numeral and is used after the verb as a frequency complement.For example:

①北京我来过两次了。

②这本小说你看过几遍?

③请等一下，我马上就来。

动词的宾语如果是名词，动量补语一般放在宾语之前。例如:

When the object is indicated by a noun, the frequency complement should be placed before the object. For example:

①我来过好几次中国了。

②我们想参观一下艺术馆。

③我找过两次玛丽，她都不在。

动词和宾语如果是代词，动量补语一般放在宾语之后。例如:

If the object is indicated by a pronoun, the frequency complement often comes after the object. For example:

①我找过他三次了，他都不在。

②玛丽来过这儿几次了。

在一般情况下，带动量补语的动词前很少用否定副词。有时为了辩白，动词前可以用“没（有）”或“不是”来否定动量补语，而不是否定动词。例如：

Normally the negative adverb is rarely used in front of the verb with a frequency complement. Sometimes in order to express clarification, 没（有）or 不是 is used to negate the complement rather than the verb. For example:

①广州我只去过一次，没去过两次。

②那个电影我只看过一遍，没看过两遍。

动量补语“一下儿”除了有时表示具体的动量外，常用来表示动作经历的时间短暂或表示轻松随便，作用相当于动词重叠。例如：

Apart from indicating explicit frequency of an action, the complement 一下儿 is also used to indicate an action done in a casual way or lasting for only a little while. Its function is similar to that of verb repetition . For example:

①我给大家介绍一下儿。

②来，请你帮我一下儿。

(6) 时量补语

(6) Duration complement

用来说明一个动作或一种状态持续多长时间的补语，叫时量补语。只有表示时段的词语可以充任时量补语。例如：

The complement which tells how long an action or state lasts is called duration complement. Only words denoting periods of time can function as duration complement. For example:

①晚会开了两个小时了。

②他病了三天，没来上课。

③我学汉语学了两年了。

动词如果带有宾语，一般要重复动词，将时量补语放在重复的动词之后。例如：

If a verb has an object, the verb should be repeated, and duration complement should be placed after the second apperance of the verb. For example:

①我们坐飞机坐了五个多小时。

②他买东西买了半天。

③她打电话打了十分钟。

如果宾语不是人称代词，时量补语可以放在动词和宾语中间，时量补语和宾语之间可以加“的”。例如：

The duration complement can be placed between the verb and the object if it is not a personal pronoun, and 的 can be used after the duration complement. For example:

①我每天要听半个小时（的）新闻。

②约翰学了两年（的）汉语了。

③他开了一天（的）车，太累了。

如果宾语是表示人的名词，时量补语可以放在宾语之前或之后。例如：

If the object is a noun of personal reference, the duration complement can be placed before or after the object. For example:

①你等一会儿玛丽吧，她马上就来。

②你等玛丽一会儿吧，她马上就来。

如果宾语是人称代词，时量补语只能放在宾语之后。例如：

If the object is a pronoun, the duration complement can only be placed after the object. For example:

①我找了你一个多小时了，你去哪儿啦？

②我等了他半天。

带时量补语的动词前用否定副词的情况与动量补语一样。例如：

The negative form of a verb with a duration complement is used in the same way as that of a verb with an frequency complement. For example:

①我只休息一天，没休息两天。

②你太累了，不休息一会儿不行啊？

有些动作如“来”、“到”、“去”、“离开”等是不能持续的，如果要表示从这类动作发生到某时（或说话时）的一段时间，也可以用时量补语。动词带宾语时，时量补语必须放在宾语之后。例如：

Certain action such as those expressed by 来,到,去,离开 etc. cannot be continued. To indicates a period of time from the occurrance of this kind of action until a certain time, however, the duration complement may also be used and they are usually placed after the object of the sentence, if the verbal predicate is followed by one. For example:

①我已经来中国两年了。
②他离开这儿已经一个多小时了。
③我们已经认识五年了。

(7) 数量补语

数量补语是指用在形容词后表示比较结果的补语，由数词加名量词充任。例如：

(7) Quantity complement

The quantity complement is a complement which occurs after the adjective to show the result of comparison. It is made up of a numeral and measure word. For example:

①我比他大两岁。
②这个班的学生比那个班多十五个。
③今年的小麦产量比去年多一倍。

3.6 独立成分

句子里除了基本成分和附加成分外，还有一类独立成分。独立成分独立于句子结构之外，不跟任何成分发生结构关系，位置比较灵活。

3.6 Independent element

Besides the basic elements and additional elements, there is an independent element in a sentence. An independent element is one which has no structural relation with other elements and is rather flexible in word position.

独立成分包括：呼语、感叹语和插入语

Independent element contains: appellation, interjection and parenthesis.

(1) 呼语　呼语表示对别人的称呼或招呼的独立成分。呼语总是由指人的名词或短语来表示；一般放在句首，有的也可以放在句末，个别的还可以放在句中。例如：

(1) Appellation

The appellation is the independent element which indicates address, or greeting. It is usually a noun that points person or phrase, and placed at the head of a sentence. In some cases, it is also placed at the end of sentence, even in the middle of sentence. For exemple:

①约翰，我们去图书馆吧！

②你放心吧，妈！

③你呀，孩子，可要小心啊！

(2) 感叹语　感叹语是表示强烈感情的独立成分，主要由感叹词充当。感叹语一般都放在句首，有时也可以放在句末。例如：

2) The interjection

Interjection is the independent element which expresses a strong feeling (emotion). Normally it is formed by exclamations function as interjection. It is usually placed at the head of a sentence. Sometimes it can be placed at the end of sentence. For example:

①哎呀，我们好久不见了。

②噢，您就是张先生！

③要是我呀，哼。

(3) 插入语　插入语是表示对情况的推测、估计，表示说话人的看法、意见和态度，或者表示提示别人注意的独立成分，可以放在句中，也可以放在句首。插入语后面一般应有语音停顿，书面上用逗号表示。

(3) The parenthesis

The parenthesis denotes supposition, estimation or speakers' ideas and attitude, or a reminder. It can be placed in the middle of the sentence or the head of the sentence. Normally it has a pause after it in reading or a comma in writting.

A、表示对情况的推测、估计。常用的有“看（起）来”、“看样子”、“想来”、“说不定”等。例如：

A. Expressing supposition or estimation, 看（起）来,看样子,想来,说不定 are often used. For example:

①看来，约翰今天不会来了。

②这个主意，想来又是小李出的。

③看样子，今天晚上要下雨。

B、表示说话人的看法、意见和态度。常用的有“我想”、“我看”、“依我看”、“说真的”、“说实话”等。例如：

B. Expressing speaker's ideas or attitude, 我想, 我看, 依我看, 说真的, 说实话 are often used. For exemple:

①这些句子，我想，你们都翻译过了。

②说真的，我吃了不少，吃不下了。

C、表示引起别人的注意。常用的有“你看”、“你听”、“你想想”、“请看”、“你说”等。例如：

C. Expressing reminding others, 你看, 你听, 你想想, 请看, 你说 are often used. For example:

①你看，这边的风景多美啊！

②你想想，这个句子翻译得对吗？

3.7 复指成分

3.7 Apposition

句子里面，有两个词语同指一个人或一件事，充当相同的句子成分，其中一个是指具体人或事物，另一个起解释、说明或指代的作用，后者就是前者的复指成分。这两个部分有时连在一起，有时一个在句

When two words or expressions in a sentence stand for the same person or thing and perform the same grammatical function, with one explaining or denoting the other, then the former may be said to be in apposition to the latter. The two words or expressions are sometimes placed side by side, and sometimes one is at the head of the sentence

首，一个在句中，在句中的一般是代词。例如:

whereas the other occurs in the middle of the sentence. The one that occurs in the middle is usually a pronoun. For example:

①我的朋友约翰又来北京了。

②我读过中国作家鲁迅的很多作品。

③苏州、杭州，这两个城市的风景都很优美。

④我们的张老师，他还是个京剧迷呢!

第四章
句子的类型

Chapter Four
Types of Sentence

4.1 单句

4.1.1 主谓句

(1) 动词谓语句

谓语由动词充当的句子是动词谓语句。动词谓语句的谓语主要从动作、行为方面陈述主语。动词后面有时带宾语，有时不带宾语。例如:

4.1 Simple Sentence

4.1.1 The subject–predicate sentence

(1) Sentence with a verbal predicate

A sentence with a verbal predicate is one in which a verb is the predicate. In such a sentence the predicate expresses the action or behaviour of the subject. A verb may or may not take an object. For example:

①我们明天考试。

②我们互相学习。

③这位先生姓李，叫李方。

④我研究中国历史。

动词谓语句的否定形式是在谓语动词的前面加上表示否定的副词"不"。例如:

A sentence with a verbal predicate is negated by using the negative adverb 不 before the predicate verb. For example:

①我们下午不游泳。

②玛丽学习汉语不学习英语。

③她不在宿舍，她在图书馆。

有些句子，谓语动词同时涉及两个对象，这样它就带上两个宾语。前一个宾语叫间接宾语，一般指人；后一个宾语叫直接宾语，一般指事物。例如：

In some sentences the predicate verb may affect two targets and therefore take two objects. The first one is called the indirect object and refers to person. The second object is called the direct object and refers to things. For example:

①王老师教我们汉语。

②我问他一个问题。

③他告诉我玛丽在图书馆。

在上例中"我们"、"他"、"我"都是间接宾语，"汉语""问题"、"玛丽在图书馆"都是直接宾语。

In the above examples 我们，他，我 are all the indirect objects, and 汉语，问题，玛丽在图书馆 are the direct objects.

汉语里，能带两个宾语的动词是比较少的，并不是任何动词都可以带双宾语。不能说"他买我一本书"或"我介绍他我的朋友"。这两个句子必须用"给"引出宾语："他给我买一本书"，"我给他介绍我的朋友。"

In Chinese, verbs which can have two objects are very few in number. One can not say 他买我一本书 or 我介绍他我的朋友。We should add 给 (for) to introduce objects, such as 他给我买一本书，or 我给他介绍我的朋友。

(2) 形容词谓语句

(2) Sentence with an adjectival predicate

汉语的形容词可以直接作谓语，不需要动词"是"的帮助。由形容词充当谓语的句子是形容词谓语句。形容词谓语句的谓语主要从性质、状态方面陈述主语。例如：

In Chinese, an adjective may act as the predicate of a sentence whithout any copula. Such a sentence is called the sentence with an adjectival predicate. The predicate describes the quality or state of the subject. For example:

①她今天非常高兴。

②我的衬衫太大。

③同学们都很努力。

在肯定的陈述句里，简单的形容词谓语前一般要有“真、太、非常、更、很”等副词作状语说明形容词谓语的程度。如果没有上述副词，只是单纯形容词作谓语，往往有比较的意思。例如:

In affirmative sentence of this type, the simple predicate adjective is usually preceded by an adverb of degree such as 真，太，非常 or 更。Without adverbial modifiers of any kind, the adjective often implies comparison, as in:

①这个商店小，那个商店大。

②这篇文章难，那篇文章容易。

③我忙，他不忙。

应该说明的是形容词谓语句里的“很”表示程度的作用已不明显。

When used in sentence of this type, 很 does not indicate degree as it does elsewhere.

形容词谓语句的否定形式是在形容词前加上否定副词“不”。例如:

A sentence with an adjectfival predicate is negated by putting the adverb 不 before the adjective. For example:

①那辆汽车不漂亮。

②看电影的人不多。

③那家很行不大。

形容词谓语句提问方式除在句尾加“吗”外，常用并列谓语成分的肯定形式和否定形式。例如:

Apart from using 吗 at the end of such a sentence, there is another way to raise a question, i.e. the affirmative–negative question which is formed by juxtaposing the affirmative and negative forms of the predicate. For example:

①你家的房子大不大？

②那些花好看不好看？

③参加舞会的人多不多？

形容词谓语句的正反疑问句，一般不用“很”等副词修饰形容词，不能说：“她很高兴不很高兴？”。

很 is not used in the affirmative–negative sentence of this type and it is incorrect to say 他很高兴不很高兴?

(3) 名词谓语句

(3) Sentence with a noun predicate

由名词、名词短语、数量词等作谓语主要成分的句子叫名词谓语句。名词谓语句又叫体词谓语句，它的谓语主要是对主语进行说明或描写，说明时间、年龄、籍贯及数量等。例如：

A sentence in which the main element of predicate is a noun, a nominal phrase or a numeral–measure word, etc. is called a sentence with a noun predicate. In such a sentence the predicate is to explain or qualify the subject. and indicates time, one's age, native place and quantity, etc. For example:

①今天五月二十四日，星期四。

②现在几点？

③她今年二十岁。

④我北京人。

⑤这件衬衫十块钱。

名词谓语句的否定形式是在名词谓语前加“不是”。例如：

不是 is added in front of the predicative noun to made the sentence negative. For example:

①今天不是五月二十四日。

②现在不是八点五十分。

③她今年不是二十岁。

名词谓语句一般也可以加“是”变成动词谓语句。例如:

In a sentence of this type, however, the verb 是 can be used in front of the main element of the predicate. Thus, it becomes a sentence with a verbal predicate. For example:

①我北京人。
我是北京人。
②今天星期四。
今天是星期四。

(4) 主谓谓语句

(4) Sentence with a subject-predicate phrase as its predicate

由主谓短语作谓语的主要成分的句子叫主谓谓语句。主谓谓语句中的谓语主要是描写或说明主语的。例如:

A sentence in which a subject-predicate phrase acts as the main element of its predicate is known as a sentence with a subject-predicate phrase as its predicate. In such a sentence, the predicate is to qualify and explain the subject. For example:

①他身体好。
②我们进步很快。
③这里空气很好。
④我们生活不太习惯。

以上四个例句的谓语“身体好”、“进步很快”、空气很好”、“生活不太习惯”都是主谓短语。这种主谓谓语句，全句的主语所指的人或事物同主谓短语中的主语所指的人或事物有一定的关系，后者往往是属于前者的。

In the above four examples, the predicates 身体好，进步很快，空气很好，生活不太习惯 are all subject-predicate phrases. In such a sentence there is a relationship, in one way or another, between the person or thing denoted by the subject of the whole sentence and that expressed by the subject of the subject-predicate phrase, the latter often refers to the former.

4.1.2 疑问句

用来发问的句子叫疑问句。疑问句的语调一般是句末往上扬。在书面上句末用问号"？"，汉语的疑问句有以下几种类型:

(1) 用"吗"的疑问句:

在陈述句句尾加上表示疑问语气的助词"吗"，就成了疑问句，这种疑问句跟它的答句的词序完全一样。例如:

①这是汉语词典吗?
②他是张力老师吗?
③你去看电影吗?

(2) 用疑问代词的疑问句:

汉语用疑问代词"谁"、"什么"、"哪儿"等的问句，其词序跟陈述句一样。把陈述句中需要提问的部分改成疑问代词，就成了疑问句。例如"

4.1.2 The interrogative sentence

An interrogative sentence is a question. It is ended with a raising intonation. In writing a question mark ″?″ is used. There are several types of Chinese interrogative sentences:

(1) Questions with the interrogative particle 吗

When the interrogative particle 吗 is added at the end of a declarative sentence, it becomes a general question. The word order of such a guestion is exactly the same as that of answer to it. For example:

(2) Questions with an interrogative pronoun

In Chinese, questions with interrogative pronouns, such as 谁，什么 and 哪儿，have the same word order as that of a declarative sentence. Questions of this kind can be formed by substituting an interrogative pronoun for the word or phrase being asked about. For example:

①他是约翰。→他是谁?
②她是他们的汉语老师。→谁是他们的汉语老师?
③这是杂志。→这是什么?
④玛丽是我们班的学生。→玛丽是哪个班的学生?
⑤他是中国人。→他是哪国人?

⑥我坐飞机去北京。→你怎么去北京？

⑦他们学校有三千个学生。→他们学校有多少学生？

⑧她有三本中文小说。→她有几本中文小说？

"多"放在单音节形容词如"大、长、远、快、高、厚、宽、深"等的前边用来询问程度。例如：

多 often goes before monosyllabic adjective such as 大，长，远，快，高，厚，宽 and 深 to ask about degree or extent. For example:

①你今年多大？

②这条路多长？

③这棵树多高？

④这条河多宽？

(3) 用正反式的疑问句：

(3) Affirmative-negative questions

正反疑问句是将谓语中主要成分（动词和形容词）的肯定形式和否定形式并列起来构成的问句。这种正反疑问句跟用"吗"的疑问句作用一样。例如：

The interrogative sentence is made by juxtaposing the affirmative and negative forms of the main elements of the predicate (the predicative verb or adjective). Such a question has the same function as a question with the interrogative particle 吗. For example:

①你是不是学汉语的学生？

②约翰今天来不来？

③你认识不认识她？

④你有没有录音机？

⑤你忙不忙？

⑥参加晚会的人多不多？

⑦她听到没听到这个消息？

动词如果带宾语，宾语也可以插在肯定与否定的动词中间。例如：

If the verb takes an object, the object may be placed between the affirmative and negative forms of the verb. For example:

①你认识她不认识？

②你有录音机没有？

(4) 用"…还是…"的选择疑问句:

(4) Alternative questions with 还是

用连词"还是"连接两种可能的答案，由回答的人选择其一，这就是选择疑问句。例如:

An alternative question is one formed with two statements joined by 还是 suggesting two different alternatives for the person addressed to choose from. For example:

①你去还是不去？

—我去。

②你喜欢听音乐还是喜欢看电影？

—我喜欢听音乐。

③你回家还是去银行？

—我回家。

"是"字句的选择疑问形式如下:

Here are two forms of how a 是 sentence is turned into an alternative guestion:

①这本小说是你的还是他的？

—这本小说是他的。

②你是日本人还是中国人？

—我是日本人。

(5) 用"呢"的省略式疑问句:

(5) Elliptical questions with the model particle 呢

在一定的语言环境里，在代词、名词或名词性短语等后面直接加上语气助词"呢"，构成疑问句。这种句子所问的内容，要由上下文来决定。例如:

Elliptical questions may be formed by adding merely 呢 to a pronoun, noun or nominal phrase. The meaning of this type of question is determined mainly by the context. For example:

①我很忙，你呢？

②我去看电影，你呢？

③今天你没有空，明天呢？

④冬天很冷，春天呢？

如果没有上下文，这种句子总是询问地点的。例如：

When there is no context, elliptical questions of this type are usually to ask where someone or something is. For example:

①玛丽呢？

②你姐姐呢？

③我的词典呢？

(6) 用"是不是"的疑问句：

(6) Questions with 是不是

要进一步证实某种情况时，可以用"是不是"提问，"是不是"可以放在全句的最后，也可以放在主语前或主语后谓语前。例如：

If we want to further confirm certain matter, we can make questions with 是不是. 是不是 can be placed at the end of the whole sentence as well as before the subject or after the subject but before the predicate. For example:

①你们看过这个电影，是不是？

②是不是你来找过我？

③我们是不是坐汽车去？

(7) 用"是吗"、"好吗"或"行吗"的疑问句：

(7) Questions with 是吗，好吗 or 行吗

"是吗"这种格式常用来表达一种不太有把握的估计，向对方询问。回答的时候，如果同意对方的估计，就用"是啊"，如果不同意对方的估计，就用"不"。例如：

是吗，好吗 or 行吗 is a question tag. It is used to ask the person addressed to confirm the speaker's own estimate of which he or she is not very sure. In answering it, 是啊 is used if the person addressed agrees to him or her, and 不 is used if the contrary is the case. For example:

①北京的夏天不太热，是吗？—是啊。

②他病得很厉害，是吗？—不，不太厉害。

③中国人喜欢喝茶，是吗？—是啊。

用“好吗”“行吗”的疑问句常常用来提出建议，征求对方的意见。例如

Question tags 好吗，行吗 are usually used as a form of polite request when one makes proposals and asks the person thus addressed if he or she is agreeable or not. For example:

①我们去散散步，好吗？

②请您参加舞会，好吗？

③我们去喝杯咖啡，行吗？

4.1.3 几种特殊的动词谓语句

4.1.3 Several special sentences with verbal predicates

(1)“是”字句

(1) 是—sentence

“是”是一个比较特殊的动词，它不表示动作或行为，而只表示判断或肯定。

是 is a verb rather different from ordinary verbs. It only indicates a judgement or identification rather than an action or movement.

1) A是B 例如:

1) A是B. For example:

①这是你的汽车。

②我是外国留学生。

③她是我们的汉语老师。

“是”字一般轻读。否定形式是在“是”前加否定副词“不”。提问用“吗”或并列谓语“是”肯定的形式和否定形式。例如:

是 is usually pronounced lightly. The negative form of 是—sentence is made hy adding the adverb 不 in front of 是. The two question forms are: ① Using the interrogative particle 吗 at the end of a statement; ② Juxtaposing the affinmative and negative forms of the predicate 是 For example:

①这是你的录音机吗?

②她是不是你们的汉语老师?

2) A是"的"字短语

代词、形容词、名词等后面加上助词"的"所组成的"的"字短语，具有名词的作用，可以单独运用。这种"的"字短语也常出现在"是"字句里。例如:

2) A is a 的 phrase

A pronoun, an adjective or a noun plus the structural particle 的 forms what is called a 的 phrase. In a sentence a 的 phrase plays the same role as a noun and can stand by itself. This type of phrase often forms part of a 是-sentence. For example:

①这本中文小说是我的。

②我的汽车是蓝的，他的汽车是红的。

③那个老师是我们系的。

(2)"有"字句

"有"是个非动作动词，它不表示动作、行为，只表示"领有"、"存在"。有以下几种用法。

(2) 有-sentence

有 is a non-action verb and means "possess" or "exist". It is used cheifly in the following ways:

1) 表示领有，在句中作谓语，常带宾语。"有"与宾语中间往往有数量词。例如:

1) Expressing possession. For example

①我有很多中文书。

②我们家有五口人。

③这个词有几种不同的用法。

2) 表示包含、拥有的意思。宾语一般带数量词。例如:

2) Expressing inclusion or comprising. In such sentence, the objects are usually accompanied by quantity words. For example:

①一年有十二个月，五十二个星期。

②一星期有七天。

③人人都有两只手。

3) 表示存在。句子的主语常是表示方位、处所、时间的名词。例如:

3) Expressing existence. The subject of such a sentence is usually a noun or a phrase with a position wordthat indicates either time or place. For example:

①学校旁边有一个邮局、一家银行。

②书架上有很多书，有的是中文的，有的是外文的。

③屋子里有人。

④唐朝有个诗人，叫李白。

⑤今天晚上有电影。

4) 表示列举。例如:

4) Expressing enumeration. For example:

①今天参加晚会的有工人、学生、干部和教师。

②每天早上，操场上锻炼的人多极了，有跑步的，有打球的，还有打太极拳的。

③放假了，学生们都去旅行了，有的去上海，有的去杭州，有的去西安、成都。

5) 表示估量、比较。例如:

5) Expressing estimating and comparision. For example:

①我看他大约有三十多岁。

②那条河有五百米宽。

③这棵树有楼那么高了。

④那块石头有一间屋子那么大。

"有"字句的否定形式是在"有"前面加副词"没"，而不是加"不"。

The negative form of 有-sentence is made by placing the adverb 没 instead of 不 in front of the verb 有.

(3) 连动句

谓语中连用两个或两个以上的动词（短语），它们分别陈述同一个主语，中间没有语音停顿，这种句子叫连动句。连动句有以下几种：

(3) Serial verbal sentence.

A sentence with verbal expressions in series is one in which the predicate consists of two or more verbs to tell something about the same subject. In speech there is no pause between the verbs. There are several kinds of sentences with verbal expressions in series.

1) 后一个动词往往是前一个动词所表达的动作的目的。例如：

1) In sentence of this type, the second verb indicates the purpose of the action expressed by the first. For example:

①我们星期日去海边玩儿。

②明天他去上海旅行。

③我去医院看朋友。

④张老师来找我们。

⑤我去还书。

2) 前一个动词往往是后一个动词所表示的动作的方式。例如：

2) In sentence of this type, the first verb usually tells the manner of the action expressed by the second verb. For example:

①我坐飞机去上海。

②我们用汉语谈话。

③他握着我的手说："太感谢你了。"

3) 用动词"有"构成的连动句。动词"有"常和名词结合，用在连动句的谓语的前一部分，表示后一动作发生的原因或条件。这种连动句有两种情况：

3) The verb 有, joined by a noun, often forms the first part of a series of verbal expressions, denoting cause or condition of the action denoted by the second verb. Such setence have the following two possible forms.

A、第二个动词不带宾语。第一个动词"有"的宾语，在意义上是第二个动词的受事。例如:

A. There is no object following the second verb and that of the first verb 有 is the receiver of the second one in meaning. For example:

①解放以前，他家生活很苦，没有饭吃，没有衣服穿。

②你最近有小说看吗？——有。

B、第二个动词后带宾语。在意义上第二个动宾短语对第一个动宾短语有补充说明的作用。例如:

B. When the second verb takes an object, verb–object phrase thus formed complements and explain the first verb–object phrase led by 有. For example:

①我有几个问题要问你。

②他有事没有参加今天的晚会。

(4) 兼语句

(4) Pivotal sentence

汉语中，有一种动词谓语句，谓语是由两个动词结构构成的，前一个动词的宾语又是后一个动词的主语，这种句子叫兼语句。兼语句的前一个动词常常是使令性的，并且能够使后面的动词发出相应的动作。例如:

In Chinese, there is a kind of sentence with a verbal predicate composed of two verbal constructions in which the object of the first verb is at the same time the subject of the following verb. Such sentences are called pivotal sentences. The first verb in such a sentence is often a causative verb which calls forth the action indicated by the second verb. For example:

①她请我们去她家。

②老师让他写一篇文章。

③我们不让孩子喝酒。

④他要我注意身体。

⑤大家选他当俱乐部主任。

"请"和"让"都有要求别人作某事的意思，"请"用于比较客气的场合。"请"还有邀请的意思，如例①

Both 请 and 让 mean to ask someone to do something. 请 is much more polite and may also be used to mean "to invite" as in example ①.

动词"有"可以构成兼语句，它的位置一般在兼语前面。由"有"构成的兼语句常常是没有主语的。例如：

The verb 有 may be used in a pivotal sentence. It is usually placed before the pivotal verb. Many of the pivotal sentence with the verb 有 are without a subject. For example:

①古代有个诗人叫李白。

②我有个朋友病了。

③星期天有许多人去长城游览。

④有个老师叫王方。

动词"祝"表示良好的愿望，常用在道喜或送别的场合。用"祝"构成的句子常常是兼语句，"祝"的主语常常不出现。例如：

The verb 祝 expresses good wishes. It is used to ofter congratulations or to bid farewell. Sentences with 祝 are usually pivotal sentences, sometimes such sentences have no subject. For example:

①祝你愉快。

②祝你们一路平安。

③祝你们演出成功。

汉语里有些句子，既是兼语句，又是连动句，是两种形式的套用。这种句子的结构比较复杂。例如：

Some sentences in Chinese are pivotal sentences as well as sentences with verbal expressions in series. The two patterns coexist within a sentence and make it rather complicated in syntax. For example:

①妈妈叫孩子去商店买东西。

②昨天我去机场接弟弟回家。

③我们请歌舞团来学校演出节目。

(5) 存现句:

(5) Existential sentence

表示人或事物在某地点存在、出现或消失的动词谓语句叫存现句。例如:

A verb-predicate sentence indicating the existence, appearance or disappearance of a person or s thing is called an exitential sentence. For example:

①湖边坐着两位老人。
②从汽车里走下来几个人。
③广场上开走了几辆车。

这种句子的词序是: 表示处所的词语 (有时是表示时间的词语) 总是在句子最前边; 动词后边一般要带动态助词或补语; 最后是表示存在、出现或消失的人或事物的名词 (这种名词常常是不确指的, 不能说:“前边走来了他”)。

Sentences of this type always begin with a word of locality (or sometimes a word of time). The verb is generally followed by an aspect particle or a complement. The noun denoting the person or thing that exists or appears or disappearant the end of the sentence (the noun is usually of indefinite reference, and it is wrong to say: 前边走来了他.

存现句分为两类:

This kind of sentences fall into two categories:

1) 表示存在。例如:

1) Telling where a person or Thing exists. For example:

①墙上挂着一张世界地图。
②桌子上放满了书、报和杂志。
③窗口前边挂着一块牌子。

2) 表示出现、消失。例如:

2) Telling the appearing or disappearing of a person or thing. For example:

①大路上走过来两个人。
②楼下来了一位客人。
③村里死了一头牛。
④我们院里搬走了一家人。

(6)“把”字句:

“把”字句是汉语里经常使用的一种动词谓语句。由介词“把”和名词或代词组成介词短语，作动词的状语，强调说明动作对某事物如何处置以及处置的结果，而这种处置常常使该事物移动位置、改变状态或受到其他影响。

(6) 把-sentenees

把 -sentences are the most commonly-used type of verb-predicate sentences. The preposition 把 is combined with a noun or pronoun to form a prepositional phrase, which is used as an adverbial modifier emphasizing how a person or thing is disposed of, and the result there of. The result of such disposal often cause the person or thing disposed of to change from one state to another or to be effected in some other way.

在“把”字句里，介词“把”和它的宾语——被处置的事物，必须放在主语之后，动词之前。例如:

In a 把-sentence, the preposition 把 and its object—the person or thing disposed of, are always put after the subject and before the verb. For example:

①我把这本书翻译完了。
②他把你的电话号码忘了。
③请把电视机开开。
④她把照相机带来了。

1)“把”字句的语法特点:

1) The grammatical features of the 把-sentence:

A、“把”字句的主要动词一定是及物的，它必须能够处置、支配“把”字后边的词语，如“我把这本小说看完了。”中的“看”能处置、支配“小说”，可以说成“看小说”。没有处置作用的动词如“有、在、是、来、觉得”等，不能用在“把”字句里。

A. In a 把-sentence the main verb is normally a transitive verb. It must be able to dispose of or govern the object after 把. For example : In the sentence 我把这本书看完了，看 may dispose of or govern 小说 (novel), 看小说 (to read a novel) is grammatical. Verbs such as 在，是，有，来，觉得， etc are not to be used in 把-sentences.

B、"把"字句的宾语一般是说话人心目中已经确定的。不能说:"我想把一本书看一遍"，只能说:"我想把这(那)本书看一遍。"

B. Generally speaking, the object of a 把- sentence is a definite person or thing in the mind of the speaker. Hence, instead of 我想把一本书看一遍, we should say 我想把这（那）本书看一遍。

C、"把"字句中的谓语动词，不能单独存在，它后面必须有连带成份（了、着、补语、宾语等)，否则，它前边就要有状语，或者它自身重叠，以说明怎样处置或处置的结果。例如:

C. To indicate how a person or thing has been disposed of or what results from the disposal, the predicate verb cannot be used alone, it must be followed by other elements such as a complement (potential complement excepted) or an objeet. Otherwise the verb should be repeated or there is an adverbial before it:

①他把杯里的茶喝了。
②你把这些钱带着慢慢用。
③我把这本字典买来了。
④小孩子把那本书弄脏了。
⑤快把大衣穿上，外边很冷。
⑥你把这篇文章看看。

"把"字句动词后不能带可能补语。因为可能补语表示的只是一种可能，并不是动作的结果。动词后也不能带表示过去经验的动态助词"过"。

The verb of a 把-sentence can never take a potential complement for a potential complement indicates possibility rather than the actual result. Nor can it be followed by the aspect 过 which indicates a past experience.

D、"把"字句中，如果有能愿动词或否定副词，这些词语应该放在"把"的前面。比如可以说："我们应该把汉语学好。"，不可以说："我们把汉语应该学好"。可以说："我还没有把这本小说翻译完。"，不能说："我把这本小说还没有翻译完"。

D. If there is an optative verb or an negative adverb in a 把-sentence, it must preced 把. We may say, for example, "我们应该把汉语学好"(We should learn the Chinese well), but not 我们把汉语应该学好。We may say 我还没有把那本小说翻译完 (I haven't finished translating that novel.) in stead of "我把这本小说还没有翻译完。"

2) 什么时候用"把"字句?

从表达方面来看，当叙述某一事物受某种动作的处置或影响，或询问某一事物受何种处置或影响时，可以用"把"字句。

2) When the 把-sentence is used?

In term of ways of expression, we use the 把- sentence when we want to express something is disposed of or influenced or when we ask how something is disposed of or influenced.

从句子的结构要求来看:

In term of structure, we use the 把-sentences as follows:

A、动词谓语包含有"成、为、作"，或以"成、为、作"为结果补语，又有两个宾语时，一般要求用"把"字句。例如:

A. We use the 把-sentence when the main verb has 成，为 or 作 as its second morpheme or as complement of result and at the same time takes two objects, a 把-sentence is usually used. For example:

①我们要把自已的家乡建设成花园城市。

②他把这本英语小说翻译成中文了。

③大家把他选为俱乐部主任。

B、动词后有结果补语“在、到、上、入”后边又带表示处所的宾语，说明受处置的人或事物通过动作处于某地时，一般要求用“把”字句。例如:

B. The 把 -sentence is generally used when the verb phrase "V + Complement of result (在，到，上，入 + object) expresses person or thing disposed of are at a certain place as a result of the action. For example:

①他们把水果放在桌子上。

②他把汽车开到学校门口。

③大家把病人送到医院去了。

C、动词谓语后有结果补语“给”，后面还带宾语，说明受处置的事物归属时，在某种情况下，也必须要求用“把”字句。例如:

C. The 把 sentence, in some cases, must be used when the main verb is followed by a result complement (formed by 给 and its object) showing the possessive relations of the thing disposed of. For example:

①我已经把那封信交给了他。

②约翰把在中国照的照片寄给父母。

③我把这本小说送给了我朋友。

D、动词谓语带双宾语，直接宾语是已知的或特指的一般用“把”字句把直接宾语提前。例如:

D. The 把 -sentence is used to transpose a direct object to the front of the verb if the verb takes two objects and the direct object is of particular reference. For example:

①他把那张画给了我。

②她把刚才听到的好消息告诉了大家。

E、谓语动词前有“都”、“全”一类表示范围的副词时，如有宾语，要求用“把”字句。例如:

E. The 把-sentence must be used to transpose the object to the front of the verb when the verb is modified by an adverbial modifier of scope like 都，全，etc. For example:

①你把那些水果都吃了吧。

②我把钱全花完了。

(7) 被动句

在汉语里，表示被动意义的句子有两类：一类是没有任何标志的，一般叫意义上的被动句；另一类是有表示被动意义的介词“被”、“叫”、“让”等的句子，叫“被”字句。

(7) Passive sentence

In Chinese, there are two kinds of passive sentences : Those without any marking feature, which are known as notional passive sentences and those using the prepositions 被，叫，让，给，etc, which are called the 被—sentences.

1) 意义上的被动句：

汉语中有些句子的主语是受事的，它在形式上和主语是施事的句子没有区别，但被动的意思很明显，我们叫它意义上的被动句。这种句子在生活中常用，主语一般是某种事物，而且是确指的。例如：

1) Notional passive sentence

There are sentences whose subjects are recipients of actions but which have the same structure as sentences whose subjects are performers of action. Sentences of this type are distinctly passive in meaning, and are called "notional passive sentences". This kind of sentences usually have a subject that refers to a definite person or thing and are frequently used in daily life. For example :

①信已经写好了。

②电影票卖完了。

③杯子打破了。

④问题已经解决了。

此类句子谓语动词一般不是一个简单的动词，往往有状语、补语、能愿动词或动态助词“了”“过”。

In such sentences, generally, the predicate verb cannot go in isolation, but is preceded by an adverbial modifier or an optative verb or followed by a complement or an aspect particle like 了 or 过.

2)"被"字句:

汉语中，在谓语动词前有介词"被"、"叫"、"让"的句子叫"被"字句，"被"字句的主语位于句首，是动作的受事者。例如:

2) 被-sentences

In Chinese, a sentence in which the predicate verb is preceded by the phrase 被 (让 or 叫) + object is called the 被-sentence. The subject of 被-sentence is the receiver of an action. For example:

①这辆汽车被那位工人修好了。

②他被大家选为班长了。

③那本小说昨天让人借走了。

④我的自行车叫弟弟骑到学校去了。

⑤我的钢笔给别人用坏了。

"被"多用于书面语，"让""叫"常用于口语。

被 is mostly used in written Chinese, whereas 叫 and 让 are usually used in spoken Chinese.

"被"字句的语法特点:

The grammatical features of 被-sentence:

A、"被"字句的主语一般是有定的或已知的。

A. The subject of 被-sentence generally is a definite one or one of earlier mention.

B、谓语动词一般不是一个简单的动词，往往还有动态助词"了"、"过"、补语、宾语、状语、能愿动词等，说明动作的结果、程度、时间等。

B. The predicate verb usually cannot go in isolation, but is usually followed by an aspect particle (like 了 or 过), a complement or an object, or preceded by an adverbial modifier or an optative verb to indicate the result, degree or time of an action.

C、如果施事者不必或不能说出的，就可以用泛指的"人"来代替。例如:

C. If there is no need to or cannot tell the performer of the action, the word 人 which is one of generic reference is used in the position of the prepositional object. For example:

①我的汉英词典叫人借走了。
②张教师被人请去作报告了。

D、当施事者不需要指明时,“被”也可以直接用在动词前,但“让”“叫”后必须出现施事者或泛指的“人”。例如:

D. When it is not necessary to indicate the performer, 被 may be placed immediatelly before the verb, but 让 or 叫 must have the doer or 人 (here refers to people in general) after itself. For example:

①张教师被请去讲中国文学了。
②忽然,门被撞开了。

E、如果有否定副词或能愿动词,都要放在“被”字前面。例如:

The negative adverb or optative verb, if there is one, should be placed in front of 被. For example:

①要是你看了这部电影,也一定会被它吸引住。
②那本书还没有被借走。

4.1.4 “是……的”句

4.1.4 Sentence with 是…的

要强调说明已经发生的动作的时间、地点、方式等,就用“是……的”。“是”放在要强调说明的部分之前(有时“是”也可以省略),“的”放在句尾。例如:

是……的 is used in a sentence to emphasize the time, place or manner of an action which took place in the past. 是 placed before the word group that is emphasized. (是 may sometimes be omitted) and 的 comes at the end of the sentence. For example:

①我是*1985*年开始学习汉语的。(时间)
②客人是从上海来的。(地点)
③我们(是)坐飞机来的。(方式)

表示过去发生某件事的一般动词谓语句，跟用“是……的”的动词谓语句所表达的意思是有区别的。如“我们是九点半出发的。”强调我们出发的时间是“九点半”，如果改成“昨天上午九点半我们出发了。”则是一般地叙述昨天上午发生的事。

A verb-predicate sentence with 是……的 is different from an ordinary verb-predicate sentence stating that something happened in the past. In the sentence 我是九点半出发的，the emphasis is laid on "half past nine"—the time at which we started off. If the sentence is changed into 昨天上午九点半我们出发了， it would only be a simple statement of what happened yesterday morning.

用“是……的“的句子，如果动词有宾语，宾语又是名词，“的”也可以放在宾语前。例如：

If the verb in a 是…的 sentence has an object expressed by a noun, 的 may be put before the object. For example：

①我是从外文书店买的这些书。

②他是在广州上的飞机。

如果宾语是代词，或宾语后带有趋向补语，“的”必须放在句尾。例如：

If the object is a pronoun, or if the object is followed a directional complement, 的 must be placed at the end of the sentence. For example：

①我们是在街上遇见他的。

②我们是从他那儿借来这辆车的。

“是……的”句的否定形式是“不是……的”。例如：

The negative form of the sentence is 不是……的 For example:

①我们不是坐汽车来的，是骑自行车来的。

②他不是从广州来的，是从上海来的。

“是……的”可以用来强调目的、用途、来源等。例如：

是……的 sentence may also be used to emphasized parts of a sentence indicating purposes, uses or origins. For example:

①他是为学习汉语来北京的。(目的)

②笔是用来写字的。(用途)

③这种电视是那个工厂生产的。(来源)

这类句子,“的”必须放在句尾。

In sentence of this kind, 的 is always placed at the end.

“是……的”可以用来强调施事者。例如:

是…的 sentence may be used to emphasize the performer. For example:

①这本书是他写的。

②他的病是张大夫给治好的。

③这个主意是谁出的?

4.1.5 比较的方式

4.1.5 Ways of making acomparision

(1) 用“比”表示比较:

(1) Comparision expressed by 比

介词“比”表示比较,用来引出类比的对象,它同名词或代词组成介词短语,在句中作状语,说明事物性质或程度的差异。例如:

The preposition 比 expresses comparison, and is used to introduce what is to be compared with. It is combined with a noun or a pronun to form a prepositional phrase, which functions as an adjective modifiers to show the differences in guality or degree. For example:

①这个房间比那个房间大。

②我比他忙。

③上海的冬天比北京暖和。

“比”也可以用于同一事物的不同时期的比较。例如:

比 can be used to indicate the difference in quality or degree of the same thing as compared with its earlier or later period. For example:

①他今天比昨天来得早。

②我朋友学习比以前好了。

如果要明确指出两种事物具体的差别时，就在谓语主要成分后边用数量词作补语。例如：

The specific differences between two things or people can be expressed by placing after the predicate a numeral—measure word phrase as a complement. For example:

①他比我小三岁。

②这个班比那个班多五个学生。

如果要表示大略的差别，可以用"一点儿"或"一些"说明差别很小，用结构助词"得"和程度补语"多"说明差别很大。例如：

The word 一点儿 (or 一些) is used to indicate that the difference between two things or people is very slight. The structural particle 得 together with the complement 多 indicates that the difference is great. for example:

①他比我大一点儿。

②这座楼比那座楼高得多。

在形容词前还可以用表示比较程度的副词"更"、"还"等。例如：

The degree adverbs 更, 还 etc. can be used before adjectives. For example:

①我比他更忙。

②妹妹比弟弟还高。

某些动词谓语句也可以用"比"表示比较。例如：

比 may also be used to express comparison in some sentences with a verbal predicate For example:

①玛丽比约翰注意语法。

②他比我了解中国的情况。

如果动词带程度补语，"比"放在动词前或补语主要成分前；如果动词又带宾语，"比"用在重复的动词前或补语主要成分前。例如：

If the verb takes a complement of degree, 比 is placed before the verb or before the main element of the complement, and if the verb takes an object as well, 比 is placed either before the repeated verb or the main element of the complement. For example:

①玛丽比我学得好。
②他游泳游得比我快。
③他写汉字比我写得快。

如果要表示比较具体的差别时，就用“早”“晚”或“多”“少”放在动词前作状语，并把具体的差别放在动词的后边。例如：

If we want to indicate the difference in concrete terms, adjectives like 早, 晚 or 多, 少 are used as adverbial modifiers before the verb, and words meaning the concrete difference are placed after the verb. For example:

①我比他早来了十分钟。
②她比我多翻译了两个句子。

用“比”的比较句，否定的时候在介词“比”的前边用副词“不”。例如：

The adverb 不 is put before 比 to form a negative comparative sentence. For example:

①这件衬衫不比那件新。
②我每天不比他来得早。

(2) 用“有”或“没有”表示比较：

(2) Comparision expressed by 有 or 没有

用“有”或“没有”表示第一种事物在比较的方面达到了或没有达到第二种事物的程度。这种方式的比较多用于否定句和疑问句。例如：

The verb 有 and 没有 can also be used to express comparison. This type of comparison, often used in negative or interrogative sentences, indicates the extent to which two things are similar or dissimilar. For example :

①你的汽车有他的汽车新吗?
②我们家乡没有北京冷。
③这儿没有海边有意思。

除形容词外，能够衡量程度的动词或能愿动词也可以用这种格式。在这些句子里“有(没有)”的位置和“比”一样。例如：

Besides adjectives, verbs and optative verbs that can measure extent, can also use 有 or 没有 to form comparison. In this kind of sentences, 有 or 没有 is placed at the same position as 比. For example:

①你有他那么会下棋吗？
②他没有我喜欢古典音乐。
③你跳舞跳得没有她好。

“没有……”跟“不比……”的意思不同。“他没有我来得早。”意思是他比我来得晚；“他不比我来得早。”意思是他可能比我来得晚，也可能跟我同时来。

没有 and 不比 are different in meaning, for example, 他没有我来得早 means "He didn't come as early as I did." But 他不比我来得早 means either "He came later than I did." or "He came at the same time as I did."

用“有”或“没有”表示比较的句子，只表示两种事物的一般比较关系，因此，谓语中不再有表示具体差异的补语。

In a sentence that uses 有 or 没有 to form comparison there is no complement to point out any particular difference after the predicate, because it is only concerned with the fact that the two things in comparison are different in a generic sense.

(3) 用“跟……一样”表示比较:

(3) Comparision expressed by 跟……一样

“跟……一样”表示两种事物比较的结果是同样的或类似的。介词“跟”引出被比较的事物，形容词“一样”作谓语主要成分。例如:

跟……一样 can be used to compare two things that are either identical or similar. The preposition 跟 introduces the second part of a comparison. The adjective 一样 functions as the main part of the predicate. For example:

①这本汉语词典跟那本汉语词典一样。
②这辆汽车跟那辆汽车一样新。
③这间屋子跟那间屋子一样大。

如果表示比较的两方面的名词都带定语，第二个名词可以省略，有时“的”也可以省略。例如:

If the two nouns in comparison both have attributive modifiers before them, the second noun (some times even the structural particle 的) may be omitted. For example:

①这本书跟那本一样厚。

②这儿的公园跟那儿一样多。

"跟……一样"在句中可以作状语，也可以作定语或补语。例如:

The phrase 跟……一样 can serve as an adverbial modifier, an attributive modifier or a complement. For example:

①我要作一件跟你那件一样的衬衫。

②他说汉语说得跟中国人一样。

"跟……一样"的否定形式是"跟……不一样"，也可以说"不跟……一样"。例如:

The negative form of the phrase 跟……一样 is 跟……不一样 or 不跟……一样. For example:

①这个句子的意思跟那个句子不一样。

②今年的冬天天气跟去年不一样。

③我朋友的专业不跟我一样。

"跟……一样"的正反疑问句是"跟……一样不一样"。例如:

The affirmative-negative form of the phrase 跟……一样 is 跟……一样不一样. For example:

①这幅画跟那幅一样不一样?

②他跟你一样不一样高?

③他跟你一样（大）不一样大?

(4) 用"最"或"更"表示比较:

(4) Comparison expressed by 最 and 更

1) 用"最"表示比较

1) Comparison expressed by 最

副词"最"，经常修饰形容词或表示心理活动的动词，作状语，表示性质状态的程度超出其他，达到了极点。例如:

The adverb 最 often modifies an adjective or a verb of psychological activity as an adverbial modifier. It shows that a quality or state of things has surpassed anything else and reached the extreme degree. For example:

①他今天来得最早。
②这是最重要的问题。
③我最喜欢游泳。

2) 用"更"表示比较:

副词"更",经常修饰形容词或表示心理活动的动词,作状语,说明性质状态的程度进一步增高。例如:

2) Comparison expressed by 更

The adverb 更 often modifies an adjective or a verb of pyschological activity as an adverbial modifier. It shows an increase in the degree of a quality or state of things. For example:

①这种方法好,那种方法更好。
②她比以前更健康了。
③我更喜欢这座城市了。

4.1.6 非主谓句

汉语的句子绝大部分都由主语和谓语两部分组成。也有一些句子不是由主语和谓语两部分组成,这种句子叫非主谓句。非主谓句有两种:一种是没有主语的,叫无主句;一种是由一个词或一个偏正关系的短语构成的,叫独词句。

4.1.6 Non-subject-predicate sentences

The great majority of Chinese sentences are composed of two parts: the subject and the predicate. However there are a few types of sentences that have no subjects or predicates. Such sentences are called non-subject-predicate sentences. There are two types of such sentences: One is a sentence with no subject that is called zero-subject sentence, the other is a sentence made up of one word, or subordinate phrase, called one word sentence.

(1) 无主句

无主句可以分以下几类:

(1) Zero-subject sentence

The following are the most common zero-subject sentences

1) 说明自然现象的无主句。例如:

1) Zero-subject sentence describing natural phenomena. For example:

①要刮风了。
②下雨了。
③出太阳了。

这类无主句多为一个动宾短语,句末有表示变化的助词“了”。

Such sentences are made up of verb–object phrase, the modal particle 了 indicating changing is placed at the end of the sentence.

2) 表示祈使或禁止的无主句。例如:

2) Zero–subject sentence describing imperative and prohibition. For example:

①请勿吸烟!
②请安静!
③随手关门。

这类句子也多为动宾短语。

Most of such sentences are verb–object phrases.

3) 表示祝愿的无主句。例如:

3) Zero–subject sentence expressing good wishes. For example:

①祝你健康!
②祝你生日快乐!
③为我们两国人民的友谊干杯!

4) 某些格言、谚语的无主句。例如:

4) Common saying or maxim as zero–subject sentence. For example:

①活到老,学到老。
②胜不骄,败不馁。
③吃一堑,长一智。

5) 用“有”起头的无主语兼语句。例如:

5) Pivotal sentences led by 有 as zero–subject sentence. For example:

①有人请他吃饭。
②有人给你打了一个电话。
③听,有人在唱歌儿。

6) 用“是”起头的无主语兼语句。例如:

①是他叫我吗?

②是风把门吹开了。

③是张大夫救活了他。

6) Pivotal sentences led by 是 as zero–subject sentence. For example:

(2) 独词句:

独词句是由一个词或一个偏正关系的短语构成的句子。例如:

①火;

②注意!

③多美丽的画!

(2) One word sentence:

A sentence composed of only one word or subordinate phrase is called a one word sentence. For example:

4.2 复句

复句是由两个或两个以上意义关系密切的单句构成的句子。复句里面的单句叫做分句。

汉语的复句可以分为联合句和偏正复句两大类型。

4.2 Compound Sentence

A sentence made up of two or more semantically related clauses is called compound sentence. The single sentence is called clause.

Chinese compound sentences fall into two categories: coordinative compound sentence and subordinate compound sentence.

4.2.1 联合复句

复句的各个分句之间的关系是平等的，意义没有主次之分，这种复句叫联合复句。按分句之间的意义关系，联合复句可以分以下几类:

4.2.1 Coordinative compound sentence

In a sentence the component clauses are equal in importance and there is no subordination in meaning, such a sentence is called coordinate compound sentence. According to the meaning of clauses, coordinative compound sentences fall into the following types:

(1) 并列复句

(1) Coordinate compound sentence

各个分句说明或描写几件事情，几种情况或一件事物的几个方面。这种复句，分句与分句之间一般可以不用关联词语（连词和起关联作用的副词）。例如：

The clauses refer to or describe different things, states or the different aspects of a thing. The conjunctional words are generally not used between those clauses. For example:

①我今年三十二岁，他今年二十三岁。

②我从广州来,我朋友从上海来。

③我们复习生词、写汉字、作练习。

有的用"也"、"又"、"又…，又…"、"一边…，一边…"、"一面…，一面…"、"不是…，而是…"、"既…，又…"等关联词语。例如：

The correlative words 也，又，又…又…，一边…一边…，一面…一面…，不是…而是…，既…又… are sometimes used. For example:

①这是新汽车，那也是新汽车。

②他又会汉语，又会英语。

由"一边…，一边…"或"一面…，一面…"组成的复句用几个分句表示几种动作同时进行。格式是："一边 A，一边 B"或"一面 A，一面 B"。例如：

一边…一边… or 一面…面… form compound sentences by joining clauses which speak of actions taking place simultaneously. The patterns are 一边 A，一边 B and 一面 A，一面 B. For example:

①玛丽一边听录音，一边写汉字。

②孩子们一边跳舞，一边唱歌。

③约翰一面看报纸，一面听广播。

④我们一面走，一面谈话。

“一边”中的“一”可以省去，变成“边…边…”的格式。省“一”之后，同单音节动词组合时，中间不停顿，同双音节动词组合时，中间可以停顿，但分句的主语必须一样。例如：

一 in 一边 may be omitted, and then we have the pattern 边…边…. When 边…边… joins monosyllabic verbs, there should be no pause between. When 边…边… joins disyllabic verbs, however, there may be a pause, but the two verbs must share a subject. For example:

①他边说边笑。
②我边听边记。
③他们边走路，边说话。

由“不是…而是…”组成的复句，前一分句用“不是”否定了一件事情或一个方面的情况，后一个分句有“而是”肯定了另一件事情或另一个方面的情况，前后相互对照。格式是“不是A，而是B”。分句的主语相同时，“不是”可以在主语前面，也可以在主语后面，分句的主语不同时，“不是”、“而是”都放在主语的前面。例如：

In a compound sentence joined by 不是…而是…, 不是 introduces and negates the first clause and 而是 introduces and affirms the second, the two clauses forming a contrast. The pattern is 不是 A, 而是 B. When the two clauses have the same subject, 不是 may be placed either before or after the subject. When they have different subjects, both 不是 and 而是 are placed before the subject. For example:

①我不是去上海，而是去广州。
②不是他没来，而是我们没有通知他。
③老师不是叫我回答问题，而是叫他回答问题。

由“既…又…”组成的复句，两个分句说明同一个事物，表示它具有两方面的性质或状态。“既…又…”连接动词或形容词。格式是“既 A，又 B”，也可以说成“既 A，也 B”。例如：

In a compound sentence joined by 既…又…, the two clauses deal with one and the same topic, and they tell of two qualities or state of the topic. 既…又… can connect adjectives or verbs. The pattern is 既 A，又 B，or 既 A，也 B. For example:

①我们的学校既漂亮，又安静。

②玛丽既懂英语、法语，又懂汉语。

③他既是文学家，也是个画家。

(2) 承接复句

(2) Successive compound sentence

各分句依次叙述连续发生的几个动作或几件事情，各分句的先后次序是一定的，不能颠倒。

Each clause tells that some actions and things have taken place in successive order. The order of each clause is definite and cannot be reversed.

各分句可以都不用关联词语。例如：

Correlative words may not be used in each clause. For example:

①他一说，大家都笑了起来。

②看着看着，他睡着了。

也可以用“（首先）……，然后……”连接。例如：

（首先）…然后 can be used in such sentences. For example:

①大会主席首先讲了话，然后大家讨论。

②我们先参观工厂，然后访问家庭。

也可以只在第二分句中用“便”、“就”、“于是”等关联词语。例如：

Correlative words such as 便，就，于是 can be used in the second clause. For example:

①他刚说过，便站起身走了。

②她听完录音，就开始翻译。

由"于是"组成的复句，后一分句的事件，是跟随前一分句的事情发生的，或者是由前一分句的事件引起的。例如：

In a compound sentence joined by 于是, the second clause tells of something that takes place in the following order, or as a result of, what is referred to in the first clause. For example:

①司机告诉我们，长城到了，于是我们都下了汽车。

②坐汽车去那里不方便，于是我骑车去。

(3) 递进复句

(3) Progressive compound sentence

递进复句的后一分句比前一分句表示更进一层的意思。"不但…而且…"是常用的关联词语。如果两个分句的主语相同，主语一般在第一分句，"不但"放在主语之后；如果两个分句的主语不同，"不但"和"而且"一般分别放在两个分句的主语前边。例如：

In a progressive compound sentence the second clause is a step further from what is said in the first. The correlative words 不但…而且… often used. If the two clauses share the same subject, 不但 usually goes after the subject. If the two clauses don't share the same subject, 不但 and 而且 are normally placed before the two subjects respectively. For example:

①他不但会说英语，而且说得很流利。

②我不但游览过杭州，而且游览过苏州。

③不但玛丽会唱中国民歌，而且约翰也会。

(4) 选择复句

(4) Alternative compound sentence

由几个分句说出几种情况，表示可以从中任意选出一项，这种复句叫选择复句。"是…还是…"是常用的关联词语。例如：

Each clause gives a statement and the person spoken to may choose any one of them. Such sentences is called alternative compound sentence. The correlative word 是…还是… is often used. For example:

①张老师是教语法，还是教汉字？
②你们是坐飞机去，还是坐火车去？
③明天你们去长城，还是去颐和园？

由“宁可…也不…”组成的复句，前一分句用“宁可”选定一项，后一分句用“也不”排除另一项。“也不”有时用“决不”。用“是…还是…”和“或者…或者…”表示的选择关系是任选的，用“宁可…也不（决不）…”表示的选择关系是定选的。例如：

In a compound sentence joined by 宁可…也不…, 宁可 in the first clause introduces the selection of one item, and 也不 in the second clause expresses the rejection of the other. Sometimes 决不 may be used instead of 也不. 是…还是… and 或者…或者… involve free choice, while 宁可…也不… denotes a definite choice. For example:

①宁可少休息，也不把作业留到明天去。
②宁可自己多做一点，决不麻烦别人。

4.2.2 偏正复句

4.2.2 Subordinate compound sentence

偏正复句一般由两个分句组成，其中一个是主要的，表示全句的正意，叫正句；另一个用来说明或限制正句，叫偏句。偏正复句可以分为以下几类：

A subordinate compound sentence is generally made up of two clauses: one of them expresses the main idea of the sentence and is called the principle clause and the other modifies or restricts the meaning of the principle clause and is called the subordinate clause. Subordinate compound sentence may involve the following types:

(1) 转折复句

(1) Transitive compound sentence

偏句说出一种事实或一个意思，正句转到与偏句的情况相反的方面去，这种复句叫转折复句。常用的关联词语有：“虽然…但是（可是）…”、“只是”、“否则”等。例如：

In this kind of sentence, the subordinate clause states a fact or an idea while the principle clause tells of something that is contrary to the subordinate clause. Common correlative words used in this kind of sentence are 虽然…但是（可是）…, 只是, 否则, etc. For example:

①虽然外边下着大雪，但是他还要骑车进城。

②你的病虽然好了，但是你还要多休息。

③虽然已经到了冬天，但是天气还很暖和。

"虽然"可以放在第一个分句主语前边或主语后边，有时可以省去，"但是"（可是）一般放在第二个分句的最前边。例如：

虽然 may go either before or after the subject of the first clause, and even may be omitted while 但是（可是） is usually placed at the beginning of the second clause. For example:

①路上很辛苦，但是他们觉得很高兴。

②他没来过中国，可是对北京的情况了解得很多。

"只是"可以单独使用，也可以跟"虽然"配合使用，"只是"表示的转折意思比"但是"轻微一些，语气也比较缓和，由它组成的复句，意思着重在前一分句，后一分句只作某些补充或修正。例如：

只是 can be used alone or together with 虽然. The transitional sense of 只是 is weaker than that of 但是 and the tone is milder. In a transitive compound sentence with 只是, the speaker stresses the first clause, with the second clause giving some additional information. For example:

①我早就想去游览长城了，只是一直没有空。

②我早就想来看你了，只是怕你不在家。

③我们早就准备搬家了，只是找不到合适的房子。

"不过"可以单独使用，也可以跟"虽然"配合使用。转折的语气比"但是"轻。例如：

不过 may be used alone or in conjunction with 虽然. It is milder than 但是. For example:

①刚到中国时，他生活不习惯，不过现在好了。

②这篇课文我能读，不过还有些生词要查字典。

③你身体比以前好多了，不过还要注意。

"不过"和"只是"都表示转折，它们的区别是："不过"多用于口语，语气比"只是"稍重一些，"不过"后面可以停顿，"只是"一般不能停顿。

Both 不过 and 只是 introduce transition. What distinguishes one from the other is that 不过 often occurs in the spoken language, with a slight stronger tone than 只是, and that there may be a pause after 不过 while after 只是 no pause in permitted.

"否则"用在后一分句的头上，表示推论，意思是"如果不这样……就"。例如：

Occuring at the beginning of the second clause, 否则 introduces a suposition meaning 如果不这样…就 (if …not…then…). For example:

①学汉语应该多说、多练，否则就学不好。
②下雨了，你要穿上雨衣，否则要淋湿的。
③你快点来，否则我们就不等你了。

(2) 因果复句

(2) Causative compound sentence

偏句表示原因，正句表示结果，这种复句叫因果复句。因果复句可以在两个分句中都用关联词语，也可以只在一个分句中用关联词语。常用的关联词语有"因为…所以…"、"由于…所以…"。例如：

In this kind of sentence, the subordinate clause tells a cause, and the principle clause tells the result. Correlative words can be used in both of the two clause, or only one of the two clauses. Correlative words in common usage are 因为…所以…, 由于…所以 … For example:

①因为天气不好，所以我们没去长城。
②因为要准备考试，所以他决定不去旅行了。
③由于约翰努力学习，所以他的汉语说得好。
④由于太累，所以他的身体越来越不好。

关联词语"因为…所以…"、"由于…所以…"可以省去两个当中的任何一个。例如：

One of the correlative words of 因为…所以… or 由于…所以… can be omitted. For example:

①因为他很忙，就不来看你了。

②由于我粗心，把"王"写成了"玉"。

③他们学习都很努力，所以能学得很好。

(3) 条件复句

(3) Conditional compound sentence

正句表示结果，偏句提出条件，这种复句叫条件复句。常用的关联词语有"只要…就…""只有…才…"。例如：

In what is called conditional compound sentences, the principle clause shows the result while the subordinative clause states the condition. Correlative words commonly used are 只要…就…, 只有…才…

①只要我们认真学习，就一定能学好汉语。

②我们只要多看几遍，就一定能看懂。

③只有你去叫他，他才会来。

④我们只有努力学习，才能学好汉语。

"只要"和"只有"可以用在主语前，也可以用在主语后。

只要 and 只有 can be used before the subject as well as after the subject.

"只有…才…"和"只要…就…"都表示条件关系。它们的区别是："只有…才…"表示的是唯一的条件，强调只有这个条件才能产生这样的结果，别的条件都不能产生这样的结果。"只要…就…"表示的是必要的条件，说明有了这个条件就能产生这样的结果，但它并不排除别的条件也能产生这样的结果。

Both 只有…才… and 只要…就… invólve condition and result. Their difference is that 只有…才… expresses the sole condition, stressing that only this very condition, and not any other condition, is possible to produce the desired result, while 只要…就… expresses the idea that so long as such a condition exists, the result may arise, not excluding the possiblity that some other condition may give rise to the same result.

(4) 假设复句

(4) Suppositive compound sentence

偏句表示假设，正句说明结果，这种复句叫假设复句。“如果…就…”和“要是…就…”是常用的关联词语。“如果”“要是”可以用在主语前，也可以用在主语后。“如果”还可以用“假如”代替。它们的用法基本相同。例如:

In what is called a suppositive compound senterce, the subordinate clause tells a suppose, and the principle clause expresses the result. Suppositive correlative words in common use are 如果…就…，要是…就…。如果，要是 may go either before or after the subject. 如果 may be used instead of 假如. They are very similar in usage. For example:

①如果明天不下雨，我们就去公园。
②你如果有不认识的字，就可以查字典。
③你要是明天有空儿，就到我家吃晚饭。
④要是你去看他，最好先给他打个电话。

(5) 目的复句

偏句表示某种目的，正句表示为达到此目的所采取的行动，这种复句叫目的复句。常用的关联词有“为了”、“为”、“为的是”、“好”等。“为了”、“为”一般用在偏句里，“为的是”、“好”总是用在第二个分句里，表示后边分句是前边分句要达到的目的。两个分句的主语不同时，“好”用在后边分句的主语后边，“为的是”一定要用在后一个分句句首，主语前边。例如:

(5) Purposive compound sentence

In that is called a purposive compound sentence, the subordinate clause indicates the purpose of the action expressed by the principle clause. “为了”, “为”, “为的是”,“好” are correlative words commonly used in purposive compound sentences. “为” is used in the subordinate clause. “为的是” and “好” are always used in the second clause (the principle clause) to introduce the purpose of the action expressed by the first clause. When subjects of the two clauses differ, 好 is placed after the subject. of the second clause, 为的是 must be placed at the beginning of the second clause or before the subject when there is one. For example:

①为了学习汉语，我买了一本汉语大词典。

②她早就起来了，为的是跟我们一起去长城。

③我们走吧，好让他早点休息。

④你一定要来，我们好一起去吃饭。

(6) 取舍复句

两个分句分别表示两个不同的事物，说话者在两者之中决定取一舍一。常用的关联词有“宁可…也（决）不…”，“宁可…也…”，“与其…不如…”。例如：

(6) Preference compoud sentence

In this kind of sentences, one clause puts forwards an extreme course of an action while the other clause indicates another course of action that will be adopted after comparison, i.e. to prefer one course to the other. “宁可…也（决）不…”, “宁可…也…” and “与其…不如…” are correlatives commonly used in preference compound sentences. For example:

①我宁可在家里呆着，也不去看那电影。

②宁可不休息，我也不把作业留到明天。

③与其去看足球比赛，不如去看电影。

“宁可…也…”表示经过比较，为了得到后边的结果，而选择了前面的动作。“宁可”一般用在第一个分句里，“也”用在第二个分句里，“也”后常带“要”“得”等。例如：

“宁可…也…” expresses the idea that after comparison, the action indicated in the first clause is chosen in order to achieve the result indicated in the second clause. 宁可 is generally used in the first clause, while 也 which is often followed by 要 or 得, should be used at the beginning of the second clause. For example:

①他宁可不休息，也得把练习作完。

②大家宁可累一点儿，也要把这些话干完。

"与其…不如…"表示前后两件事物，还是选择后面的为好。"与其"一般用在第一个分句里，"不如"用在第二个分句里，"不如"前还可以加"还"、"倒"或"真"等。例如:

"与其…不如…" indicates that of the two things, the second is preferred to the first. 与其 is generally used in the first clause while 不如, which is often preceded by 还, 倒 or 真, occurs in the second clause. For example:

①与其你走着去，还不如我骑车去。

②与其在外边冻着，倒不如另外找个地方。

附录:

语法术语 Grammatical Terms

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“被”字句	被—sentence	4.1.3
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